The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

TODAY'S EDUCATION

November-December 1974

- Buckminster Fuller on Remapping Our World
- John Gardner on Effects of Citizen Action
- Helvi Sipilä on Women and World Affairs
- Father Theodore M. Hesburgh on Higher Education
- Madeline Hunter on Classroom Realities
- Special Feature on Some Professional Partners

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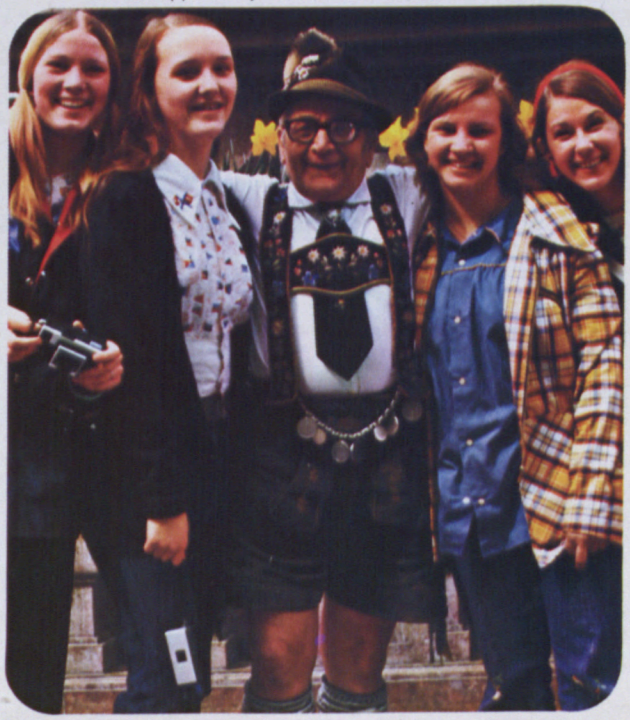

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TODAY'S EDUCATION

November-December 1974, Volume 63, Number 4

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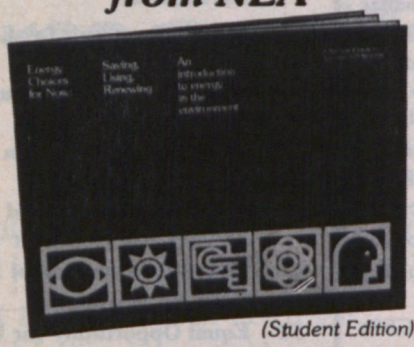
Curriculum materials for middle grade students from NEA

From the first chapter—"What's It Got To Do With Me?"—to the last chapter—"Future Choices and You"—these new NEA publications concentrate on the power each of us has in our own hands to help decide the quality of all our lives.

Energy Choices for Now: Saving, Using, Renewing is an introduction to energy in the environment for supplementary use in social studies and science classes, or as resource and core materials for mini-courses.

In the past year we have been bombarded with Presidential speeches, TV specials and newspaper editorials on the various aspects of the present energy situation. Advertisements told us to "dial down" and "slow down." Electric bills went up. Street lights went out.

It took all this and gas station lines at 5 a.m. to wake us up to the role energy plays in our lives.



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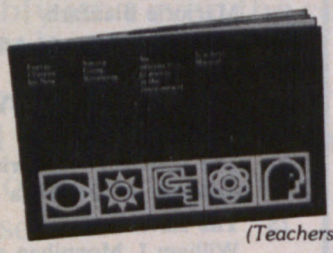

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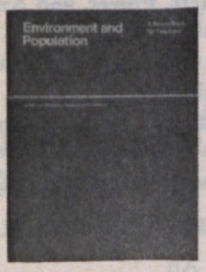

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Drastic Proposals for Educational Improvement

By JAMES A. HARRIS
NEA President.

The schools of the urban crisis, NEA said in its 1969 Task Force on Urban Education report, perpetuate the cycle of poverty and discriminate against the poor and the powerless. "America's central challenge remains: to develop its human resources, its children, so that they in turn can develop America." This is even more true today, when—

- One-third of the nation's pupils attend big city schools.
- Two million school-age children are out of school.
- Over 500,000 children are in juvenile detention and correctional facilities during the year, and almost 60,000 are there on any given day.
- School vandalism costs $150 million to $200 million annually.
- School violence is increasing (assaults, possession of weapons, theft, murder).
- One million Americans, ages 12-17, are illiterate.

NEA's 1969 recommendations for urban school reform in the areas of organization, curriculum, staffing, and financing are still germane. They will be reexamined this year as we gear ourselves for a massive national conference on urban education and other areas of educational neglect—an action-oriented conference that will propose drastic solutions to drastic problems.

The ghetto school must be eliminated. Equal educational opportunity cannot exist unless the total environment of the disadvantaged is changed and opportunities in all other areas of life are more nearly equal.

Teachers must refuse to teach in dilapidated, substandard schools, and parents must refuse to send their children there. School boards must refuse to build schools in rat-infested, blighted neighborhoods until the city has improved the quality of living there. By continuing to teach in these situations, we teachers help to preserve the ghetto as much as or more than the slumlords and the blockbusters. We cannot do a good job if the children are hungry, ill-clothed, and ill-housed and have untreated physical ailments; if their parents suffer from chronic unemployment; and if schools and streets are unsafe.

Urban educational reform calls for drastic solutions that concentrate on the family rather than the individual and calls for vast expenditures of funds. The amount of money now spent on urban schools must be quadrupled in order to—

- Reduce the average class size to 10.
- Provide for well-trained master teachers who relate to and understand their pupils' life-styles and backgrounds.
- Provide individualized instruction for students at all levels.
- Provide year-round lighted school buildings to educate children and adults 24 hours a day, seven days a week.
- Provide public education beginning at the age of three.
- Obtain the services of more specialists—psychologists, visiting teachers, reading teachers, nutritionists.
- Provide free higher-education opportunities for students.
- Provide for better health services to improve the health and well-being of economically disadvantaged families.
- Provide job assistance to improve family income.
- Provide the urban equivalent of the rural county and home demonstration agents to improve the quality of life for city dwellers.
- Establish "schools of inquiry" along the lines of teaching hospitals, as suggested by Vernon Haubrich of the University of Wisconsin, and offer internships whereby teacher candidates could learn from and become deeply involved in the life-style of the economically deprived, disadvantaged, and isolated people.
- Enable teachers to participate in a two-way acculturation process to overcome the misunderstanding between school staff and community.
- End use of standardized testing for ability grouping and labeling of pupils.
- Eradicate discrimination based on sex, race, language, religion, and national origin in policy, practice, curriculum, and educational policies.
- Establish an office of ombudsman to relieve the frustration created by the vastness and impersonality of the educational bureaucracy.

The programs suggested above call for widespread teacher, student, and community planning and implementing. They will not work if developed and handed down by the school authorities. To make the programs a reality, an annual per-pupil expenditure of $4,000 will be required—compared to the 1974 average expenditure of $1,121 per pupil. This is a bargain, since it costs an average of $6,989 annually to maintain a troubled child in a detention home and about $4,102 a year to subsidize a family on welfare. □

LETTERS

Watergate

I have read with contempt your September-October issue, particularly the articles on Watergate by Henry Steele Commager and Arthur Schlesinger, Jr. I wish to remind you that all teachers are not fire-vomiting liberals or Nixon haters.

—Richard D. Strickland, *Dallas, Texas.*

While our language has been corrupted, the causes of the corruption still stain us. Watergate was simply a highly publicized example of how words were used to conceal or distort facts. The public relations men, the mass media, particularly television and the movies, still continue to demean and debase our quality of life.

By putting the blame on language rather than on the purveyors of deceit, Schlesinger finds the fault in the reflection rather than in the mirror.

—Leonard Boyer, *John Bowne High School, Flushing, New York.*

I was proud to be an NEA member when I read the articles on public morality (Commager) and on the corruption of language (Schlesinger).

—Robert H. Orr, *Vincennes (Illinois) University.*

Speaking of Richard Nixon as the representative of the worst side of the American character, Henry Steele Commager ("Watergate and the Schools") says he represents "the acquisitive society, the exploitative society, the aggrandizing society." He also represents the "American conviction that anything can be bought."

I agree. See the back cover of this same issue (September-October). Guess who, in a paid advertisement, is listed as an "outstanding . . . president who contributed to the birth and growth of our Freedom Heritage"? You have been bought, too.

—William T. McLaughlin, *fourth grade teacher, Union School, Saline, Michigan.*

In fairness to the advertiser, it should be noted that the ad was printed before the conclusion of the House Judiciary Committee's investigation of grounds for impeachment and before the President's resignation.

Discipline and Love

There is no question that Jean Dunaway has effectively co-opted *her* sixth grade class of mostly black children ("How To Cut Discipline Problems in Half," September-October). She has effectively organized her class to make it easy for her to drive 35 miles to school and to make it happily and safely home.

There is nothing to suggest, however, that she has done anything for the children. They don't need her love. They need her information (presuming that she has some that is valuable), they need her as an ally in struggles against inequity and injustice. They have to know *how* unemployment and poverty and race and class- and sex-biased systems of justice operate and, more importantly, how these can be changed.

In my opinion, Ms. Dunaway isn't fair about her love. One cannot impose or coerce "love"—love is mutually achieved. It is relatively easy to seduce children, particularly powerless, minority, and poor children. It is even possible to engender guilt on the part of those who don't want to pay the teacher "two smiles a day." But that's not love. Love comes from a deeper, more total sharing than is possible from the limited experiences described by Jean Dunaway.

And if she does something more than hug children and have them smile back at her, well, tell us about that, why don'cha?

—Arthur Pearl, *chairman, Committee on Education, University of California, Santa Cruz.*

Alternatives

"Alternatives in the Public School" as advocated by Mario Fantini (September-October) are far more desirable than government-supported alternatives *outside* the public school, such as voucher plans. But Fantini's plan also has the potential to seriously damage human and societal development.

The extreme alternatives listed by Fantini—complete freedom of choice or complete prescription—are not good for any students in a democratic society. We do need some alternatives for different students and teachers, but, more important, we need balance in the curriculum for all students.

We all need some freedom and some order in our lives.

—Sidney Dorros, *retired NEA staff member.*

Motivating Students

Marilyn Van Derbur's article, "Motivating Students" (September-October), is extremely provocative. Where can I obtain more information about the mini course on motivation available on film and cassette that she mentions in her article?

—Madlyn H. McKay, *English teacher, East Rochester (New York) Junior High School.*

Write to Marilyn Van Derbur Motivational Institute, 718 17th St., Suite 800, Denver CO 80222.

Poor Readers

I found both articles on poor readers (September-October) extremely interesting, particularly when read together. Each author champions the needs of children with a particular type of reading problem—Deborah W. Meier, the culturally and linguistically different, and Joyce Hood, the neurologically different.

What each seems to overlook, however, is that the same child may fit both types. A culturally (or linguistically) different child may also have a specific reading disability. While it is probably true that most culturally different children with poor reading do not have such a disability, it is also probably true that they have at least the same percentage of specific reading disability as children in other groups. They should, therefore,

(Continued on page 8)

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LETTERS
(Continued)

be given the same special services available to all children from state and federal funds. Too often they are not screened for such special services on the assumption that their reading problem stems from cultural background only.

Two points in Meier's article need much thought—her rather strong antitesting position and her plan for delayed reading instruction. With regard to testing, one may get the impression that in order to alleviate frustrations of repeated failure among culturally different pupils, we should do away with the tests that measure that failure.

With regard to when children should be started on learning to read, it would seem that Piaget's theory can just as readily be used to justify early reading instruction as late. It depends on what aspects of reading one focuses on—whether the symbolic aspects or the conceptual. Indeed, most of the research on early reading completed during the past 10 years seems to point to benefits of an early start, particularly for culturally and linguistically different children.

Congratulations to the authors and to *Today's Education* for two exciting and worthwhile articles. They are full of provocative ideas and warm thoughts for the human potential among elementary school children and teachers.

—Jeanne Chall, *professor of education, and director, Reading Laboratory, Harvard University Graduate School of Education.*

Third Person Singular

"After All" (September-October) discusses a problem which many writers face: use of the third person singular. This summer when writing a paper for a graduate course, I tired of the *he/she* and just used *he* in the broad sense of the word. But I felt guilty every time I did it.

I support the idea of using *ne, nis,* and *ner* as Fred Wilhelms has suggested.

—Carol E. Bolton, *fourth grade teacher, Vestal (New York) Central School.*

I can't take seriously such confections as *nis* and *ner*, which sound like pig Latin and stand to gain nothing but derision. Instead, let's try for conciliation and just grant overdue amnesty to *they*, which may sound like hell but offers the considerable advantage of actual usage. Singular indefinite *they* seems to have earned its way home with years of public service that merit recognition from the linguistic right wing.

—Elton Hocking, *West Lafayette, Indiana.*

Teaching About the Oceans

The oceans comprise 70 percent of the earth's surface and are our only remaining terrestial frontier—a source of food and raw materials and an avenue of commerce and transportation. The American public must recognize its direct link to the oceans, and broadened awareness in the schools all over the country is a good beginning.

As a global environment, the oceans require effective international laws and institutions to regulate resources, rights, and responsibilities for ocean development and use. These could set important precedents in an era of growing interdependence among nations.

For information on teaching about ocean issues, write the Ocean Education Project, 245 Second St., N.E., Washington, DC 20002.

—Lee Kimball, *Ocean Education Project, Washington, DC.*

Spanish Letter

What the hell does Jennie M. Durán say in the September-October "Letters"? Let 'em learn English first so that "they" can communicate with US in the only language that we can barely understand nowadays.

—Martin M. Maestas, *Normandy (Missouri) Senior High School.*

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SI-TEN

RESEARCH CLUES

By ALEXANDER FRAZIER
Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus.

Findings like those reported here have to be assessed carefully. What works in one situation may not in another. A single study seldom settles an issue or determines "the truth" once and for all. Knowledge accumulates slowly.

But new ideas deserve our consideration and often repay it. Moreover, we may sometimes be struck as much by the audacity and ambition of a researcher as by his or her results. If a study opens up a new field of speculation for us, that may be contribution enough.

Who should provide sex education?

Home and school or home and church should assume the task jointly, according to interviews conducted with 125 Connecticut couples. Parents of younger children prefer the home-school partnership; older parents, the home-church one.

Commenting on their own sex education, nearly half the parents named peers as the chief source, with mothers (27.5 percent) next and fathers a poor third (8.6 percent). Less than 3 percent identified church and school as their sources of sex education.

See Roger W. Libby and others. "Configurations of Parental Preferences Concerning Sources of Sex Education." *Adolescence* 9: 73-80; Spring 1974.

Can the middle-aged make the grade?

Past studies have found that adults over 35 continue to grow rather than decline in intellectual functioning, that older people possess a verbal advantage over the young, and that continued education tends to hold back the clock.

In this study, a group of older students from the University of Washington (mean age in the early forties) were found to score highest in their entrance exams on vocabulary and spelling, lowest on quantitative measures. Test scores and later grades were found to relate only at modest levels. In fact, the major conclusion was that middle-aged college performance is "not strongly related to much of anything." After a certain point in life, it's the personal pressure that seems to count.

See Patricia W. Lunneborg and others. "Prediction of College Performance in Older Students." *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 21: 215-21; May 1974.

What is the best way to teach spelling?

No teaching at all is better than teaching from lists unrelated to reading or writing, according to this study of Georgia first graders. The best way is to teach words for writing related to stories in the reader, the next best is to teach spelling of words drawn directly from reading lessons.

See George Mason and others. "Relating Reading and Spelling: A Comparison of Methods." *Elementary School Journal* 74: 281-86; March 1974.

What part does ethnicity play in teacher-student verbal interaction?

Teachers direct more questions to some students than to others. Their questions differ in kind, too, from one student to another. Some students receive more praise than others for their responses. A considerable body of research supports these findings.

Little effort has been made, however, to isolate ethnic-racial variation in verbal interaction. A study by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1973) revealed that teachers question Chicanos less often than Anglos and do not praise the ideas of Chicanos as much as they do those of Anglos. Another recent study of social studies classrooms revealed more teacher contacts with white than with black students, as well as differences in the kind and quality of contacts.

The reviewer of these studies believes that equalizing interaction between teacher and students needs much closer attention.

See Geneva Gay. "Exploring Verbal Interactions in Desegregated Classrooms." *Educational Leadership* 31: 725-30; May 1974.

What should we teach?

One more answer to this perennial question has been developed by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory located in Portland, Oregon. Its three-year study, involving 200 teachers and curriculum specialists in 55 school districts around Portland, has resulted in a long list of "learning goals" covering all the subject fields, K-12. The goals, 15,000 in number, are of two kinds, general and course-oriented, and are framed for use in selecting materials, planning instruction, and checking up on outcomes.

The multivolume report of the study is published for NREL by Commercial-Educational Distributing Services (P. O. Box 3711, Portland, Oregon 97208).

See "Educators Outline What Students Should Be Learning." *D & R Report* 3: 16; February-March 1974.

Are children more creative in open classrooms?

Children from two private schools in Detroit—one with open and the other with traditional classrooms—were all found to be highly creative on the Torrance Tests. But they differed significantly in type of creativity.

Open-classroom children excelled in "figural" creativity (picture construction or completion, for example), while traditional-classroom children excelled in verbal creativity (proposing unusual uses for common objects or improvements in things like toys).

The investigators urge caution in interpreting results (smallness of sample, lack of randomness in assignment between two kinds of class-

(Continued on page 12)

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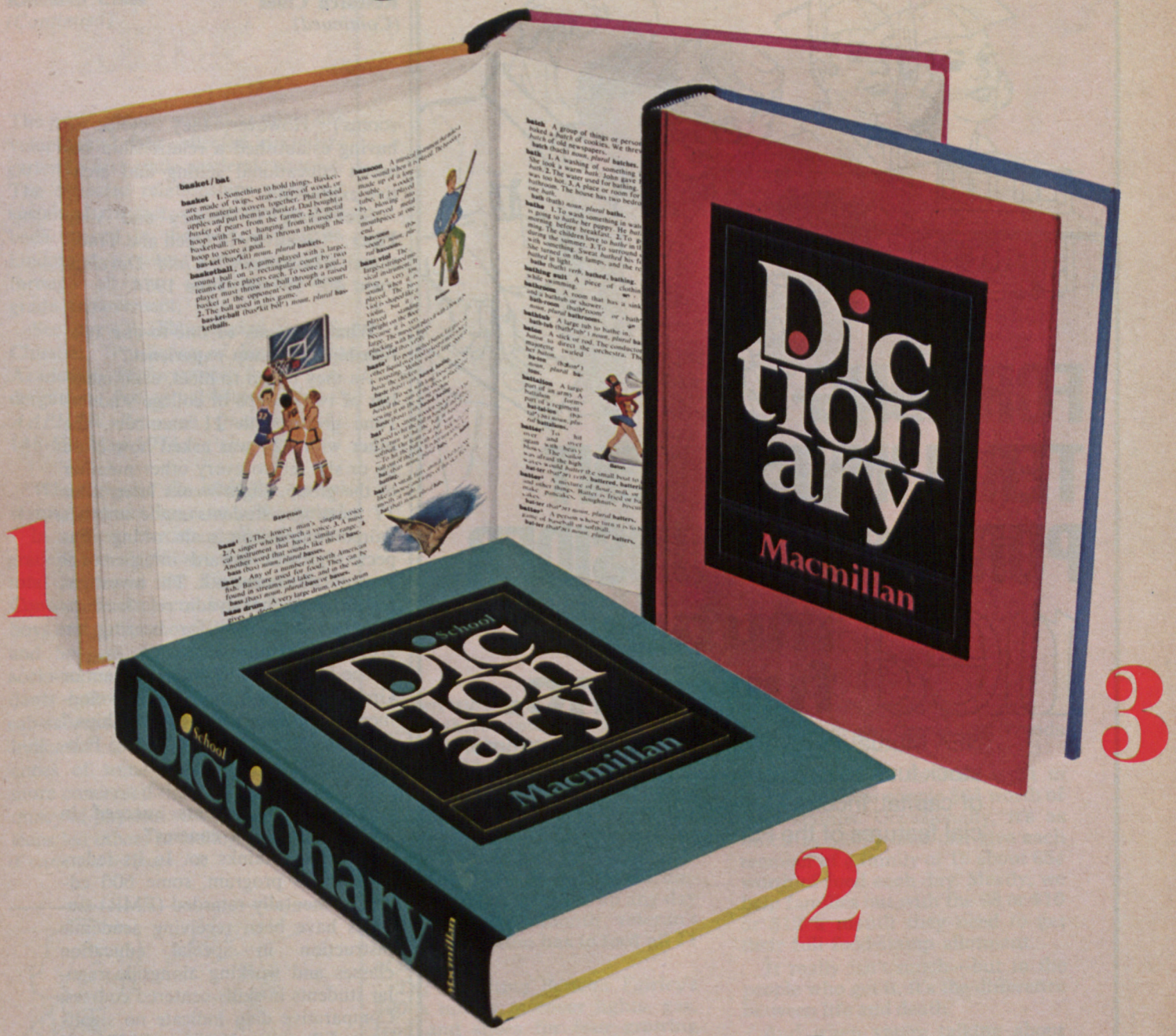

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rooms). However, they rejoice in having established a relationship between educational setting and creative expression.

See Craig T. Ramey and Vera Piper. "Creativity in Open and Traditional Classrooms." *Child Development* 45: 557-60; June 1974.

What happens to one-to-one relationships in group experience?

As they began to meet, each member of two groups of college students (one group with 11 members, the other with 12) was asked how close he or she felt to every other member of the group. Eight weeks later, after 17 meetings, students made another paired-comparison scale rating. Expected growth toward interpersonal warmth was borne out. The investigator proposes that dyadic relationships be studied further for bearing on group cohesiveness.

See Donald R. Kingdon. "Team or Group Development: The Development of Dyadic Relationships." *Human Relations* 27: 169-77; February 1974.

Can EMR students succeed in regular vocational courses?

Pittsburgh thinks so. In its federally funded program, some 600 educable mentally retarded (EMR) students have been receiving academic instruction in special education classes and working alongside regular students in skills-centered courses. Comparative data indicate no significant differences between EMR and regular students in grades made in vocational classes, attendance, and job placement of graduates.

See " 'Project Liaison' Aids Exceptional Students." *The News* (Pittsburgh Public Schools) 29: 14; May-June 1974.

Can first grade success be predicted from perceptual-motor tests?

Numerous studies have found concurrent relationships between academic success and perceptual-motor development among young children.
(Continued on page 13)

Research Clues
(Continued)

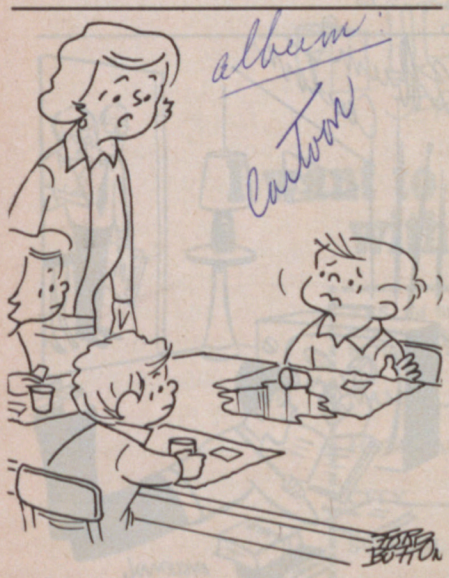
The present study sought to relate developmental data collected in kindergarten to first grade academic success. The expected relationships were not sustained. In fact, children who had been placed in the bottom half in kindergarten were found scattered through all four quartiles in first grade achievement.

See Jerry R. Thomas and Brad S. Chissom. "Prediction of First Grade Academic Performance from Kindergarten Perceptual-Motor Data." *AAPHER Research Quarterly* 45: 148-53; May 1974.

What impact do ethnicity, social status, and sex have on self-esteem?

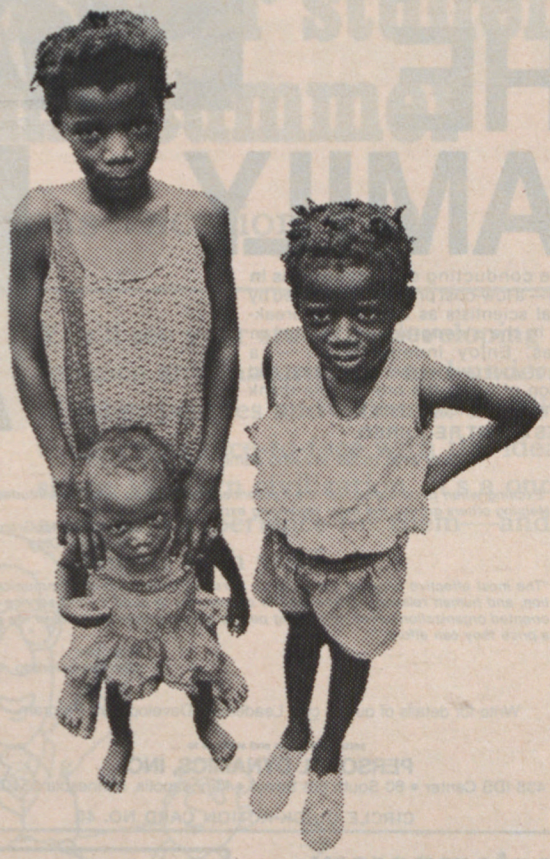
In a New Mexico study of ninth graders, no significant differences in total scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale were found between boys and girls; among Blacks, Anglos, and Spanish Americans; or among socio-economic levels to which students had been assigned. However, sub-scores on 13 aspects of self-esteem indicated several significant differences of some interest. Girls were more concerned than boys about adequacy of physical self. Spanish Americans led others in feeling good about

(Continued on page 14)



"No, Sidney, spilling your juice is not an impeachable offense."

Is there really starvation in America?



There sure is.

And there would be more of it except for the NAACP Emergency Relief Fund.

There's Elma May Greer. Since her husband died, she's been trying to support eight children on $84 a month from welfare.

Join Ray Wood's family for dinner. When he can't pick up any day labor, his $25-a-month veteran's disability pension has to feed all 11 of them.

Try budgeting Berlean Fairley's $60 a month to cover lights, gas, food and shoes for four growing kids.

For these families, and thousands more in the rural South, there's only one alternative to literal, actual starvation: the Federal Food Stamp Program.

But how do you buy food stamps when you have no cash? How do you get to the selling office when you're blind, or crippled, or can't scrape up the carfare?

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Sometimes it's as little as $1 to buy a penniless couple $64 worth of food stamps. Occasionally, it's as much as $20, which can give each member of a family of 16 about 65¢ worth of food each day. Mostly, we help families out with the $8 or $10 or $12 a month they need to get their full food-stamp allotment.

It really isn't much—but to the people who get it, it's the difference between life and death.

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Research Clues
(Continued)

moral-ethical self. Blacks led the rest in sense of identity. Correlations were also found between general self-satisfaction and the students' socioeconomic status.

See Gary W. Healey and Richard R. DeBlassie. "A Comparison of Negro, Anglo, and Spanish American Adolescents' Self-Concepts." *Adolescence* 9: 15-24; Spring 1974.

How does physical appearance relate to peer acceptance among children?

First impressions based on physical attractiveness may be altered by social interaction. Or so we have thought. But a series of studies is indicating that an appealing appearance is a dependable bonding agent among children.

In the present study, researchers identified stars and isolates at a two-week summer camp. Then, the researchers submitted photos of these children to other nonparticipating children—and from photos alone, the latter made the same selections of stars and isolates.

See Robert E. Kleck and others. "Physical Appearance Cues and Interpersonal Attraction in Children." *Child Development* 45: 305-10; June 1974.

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SI-TEN

Citizen Action Can Turn Things Around

By **JOHN W. GARDNER**
Chairman, Common Cause.

It was almost unbearably hot and humid in Philadelphia in the summer of 1787. When the delegates to the Constitutional Convention closed the windows of Independence Hall, they sweltered; when they opened them, they were distracted by street noises and pestered by flies.

There were 55 delegates to the Convention, but not many more than 30 attended any given meeting. The group was relatively young—Alexander Hamilton was 30; James Madison, 36; Jonathan Dayton, 26; Charles Pinckney, 29.

Toward the end of the Convention, the delegates submitted the agreed-upon articles to a committee on style. Committee member Gouverneur Morris was chosen to make a smooth draft of the new constitution. Two days later, when the committee reported out the document, it opened with one of the most surprising and powerful phrases in all our history—the seven words, "We, the people of the United States."

It isn't easy for us now to understand how surprising those words were. When the document went into the style committee, it began, "We, the people *of the States* of New Hampshire, Massachusetts . . ." (Italics mine.) That wording was better suited to a feeling that had grown swiftly in the 11 years since the writing of the Declaration of Independence—a feeling that each state was virtually a sovereign nation in its own right.

Bear in mind that during the war when George Washington tried to get his New Jersey troops to swear allegiance to the United States, they simply refused. "New Jersey is our country," they said.

Under the Articles of Confederation, each of the states had its own tariff laws. New Jersey had its own customs service. Nine of the states had their own navies.

The surprising phrase, "We, the people of the United States," suggested a source of legitimacy and power that was larger than the sovereign states and inclusive of the states. The words struck an enormously responsive chord in the emotions of most Americans —and the phrase spread like wildfire across Europe. In the older countries, weary of autocrats, the words were incredible and spine-tingling.

Whatever the phrase may have meant to the drafters of the Constitution, and it probably did not mean for them precisely what it means for us, over the years it has come to signify for many Americans the very essence of self-government. It has come to stand for the fact that all the vast and weighty machinery of government, all the pomp and dominion of state, all the powers and principalities derive their legitimacy, ultimately, from the people.

For many years, Americans acted in the spirit of that phrase. In fact, Europeans marveled at the readiness of American citizens to get together to pursue any public issue of common interest.

Then in the middle years of this century, we almost lost the habit. We almost resigned ourselves to the idea that the phrase, "We, the people," really meant the federal government. The nation had become too big, too complex, and was changing too fast for individuals to understand or feel that they could participate.

We can restore the traditional confidence of Americans that they have a voice in the system and that the system can be made to work. But it won't be easy. Public opinion polls show a deep loss of confidence on the part of the American people. Cynicism is replacing trust, and this is a profoundly dangerous circumstance.

How can we restore confidence in our institutions? What must we do?

Everyone is familiar with the list of substantive problems the nation faces—inflation, energy shortages, unemployment, international tensions, crime, racial conflict, and many more. But while we are tackling these problems—and we cannot run away from them—we must recognize that we will not solve any of them until we repair the instruments of self-government.

First we must build a political and governmental process that is open, accountable, and unbought, a political and governmental process that citizens can believe in and place their trust in.

The goal is large: to preserve our constitutional system and our constitutional liberty. In order to do this, we must deal with some concrete problems.

The Presidency and the Executive Branch have steadily accumu-

lated power over the past 40 years, and in that same period, the power of Congress has waned. So we have heard demands for a seemingly simple remedy to our recent troubles: Weaken the Presidency; strengthen Congress. But ours is a huge and complex society in a swiftly changing and dangerous world. We can never again have a weak Presidency and Executive Branch. And Congress cannot play the leadership role alone.

We must accept the necessity for a strong Presidency and Executive Branch and at the same time create powerful instruments for calling them to account. Most of the needed instruments now exist but require strengthening.

We have no single protection against the abuse of power. We cannot put our sole faith in a great leader (even if we could find one). We cannot rest all our hopes in a revitalized Congress. Or in new laws. The system of accountability toward which we must move will have to be woven of many strands.

Let me list the main ones.

Congress, of course, is the most versatile and significant check on the power of the Executive. It has a special importance for citizens because, of the three branches of our government, Congress is the accessible branch.

But if Congress is to play its role effectively, it must proceed further with the reform movement now under way. Of particular importance are the final steps it must take in abolishing secrecy as a way of life, in throwing off the albatross of the seniority system, and in gaining a grip on the budget process. The House of Representatives must take action to restructure committees and should institute the practice of rotating committee chairmen and committee assignments. And both houses must alter at once their improvident habit of handing powers over to the President in an emergency and then never reclaiming those powers.

Another constraint on the abuse of power, another element in the web of accountability, is the rule of law as undergirded by the Constitution. It is not a new idea. Cicero said, "We are in bondage to the law in order that we may be free." And Edmund Burke said, "The only liberty I mean is a liberty connected with order; that not only exists along with order and virtue, but which cannot exist at all without them."

Some people think a lot about law and order and do not spend much time thinking about freedom. Others think a lot about freedom and do not spend much time thinking about the rule of law. Both kinds of people would do well to go back to our Constitution, which gives us our freedom inextricably embedded in a framework of law.

If ours is not a government of laws, if the Bill of Rights is a scrap of paper, then anyone of us may be the next victim. If we incur official displeasure or if some neighbor concludes that we do not think the right political thoughts, our mail may be opened, our telephone tapped, our houses broken into, and anyone we may have offended may be called to give secret testimony against us. Our protection against that possibility is the Constitution.

And while we are examining the rule of law, we had better remind ourselves that we can no longer afford a Department of Justice which is entangled with politics. All too often, in one Administration after another, the post of attorney general has gone to an individual whose chief distinction was deep involvement in the political wars. That must stop.

In addition, Congress should create an independent and permanent Office of Public Prosecutor which would deal only with charges involving official misconduct and violation of campaign or ethics laws. The conflict of roles and responsibilities that necessitated the appointment of a special prosecutor was not a result of the unique difficulties of the Nixon Administration. It is a conflict that is built into the structure of the Department of Justice, and it must be dealt with on a permanent basis.

The Executive Branch must have its own internal checks and balances, its own constraints on power, but these have diminished as the power that formerly resided in Cabinet departments has been steadily shifted into the Executive Offices of the President.

Not only should Cabinet departments be restored to their former strength and Cabinet officers of stature be brought in to serve, but the vigor and dignity of the senior civil service should be reestablished. (In the recent attempt to use the Internal Revenue Service to harass the Administration's "enemies," the integrity of senior professionals in the Service played a major role in limiting the harassment effort.)

Of course, civil servants who manage government programs must themselves be held accountable in a variety of ways—through program evaluation, through redress-of-grievance procedures, and, most of all, through the requirement that they conduct the public business openly.

Among our most effective constraints on the abuse of power is, of course, the freedom of speech and of the press guaranteed in the First Amendment. Neither the newspapers and news magazines nor radio and television journalism should be regarded as above criticism, and I suspect that almost everyone has had occasion to indulge in such criticism.

I have been in public life for a number of years now, and I can assure you that everyone in public

If ours is not a government of laws, if the Bill of Rights is a scrap of paper, then anyone of us may be the next victim.

life has had occasion to be angry at the news media. Nevertheless, the media are the shield of our freedom, and we must preserve their freedom.

Less frequently discussed as a constraint on the abuse of power is the constitutional reservation of power to the states. The Constitution abounds in simple, powerful sentences, none more straightforward than the Tenth Amendment, which reads in its entirety: "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people."

In today's intricately organized society, allocation of powers among federal, state, and local levels of government is a complex process. But the states can continue to be—as originally intended—a constraint on the power of the central government, provided that the states themselves are not in decay. State government must be revitalized if it is to play its constitutional role.

Quite another sort of instrument of accountability is a soundly functioning electoral process and healthy political parties.

The most urgent requirement is, of course, a total overhaul of our system of campaign financing. Another urgent requirement is legislation to outlaw subversion of the electoral process through espionage and sabotage.

Along with such reforms must go a revitalization of the political parties. High-minded citizens who look down on politics are going to have to learn that we need politicians. Just as we must reject those who corrupt the public process, so we must support those politicians who risk their careers in the public interest.

In any society, it is inevitable that equally worthy groups want mutually incompatible things. Unless we want the whims of a dictator to settle such differences or unless we want to shoot it out, we will have to turn to the much-maligned arena of politics. Where else, how else can a free people settle their differences peaceably?

Still another constraint on power is citizen action of the sort represented by Common Cause, the citizen's lobby. In the mid-twentieth century, the long tradition of citizen action in this country began to fade. As the nation grew vast, as the problems grew technical, as social organization grew complex, citizens could no longer imagine that they might have a significant impact.

But today the tradition of citizen action is being reborn. And now it has a new shape and tone. Citizen organizations have learned how to make their influence felt in a huge, complicated society. They have learned how to organize; they have developed the same competence and toughmindedness that characterizes the most effective special-interest lobbies.

The two chief obstacles to responsive government are the scandalous capacity of money to buy political outcomes and the bad habit of doing the public's business behind closed doors.

In 1970 when Common Cause was founded, we said that, given traditional campaign financing practices, the spectacular rise in campaign costs was going to corrupt our political system beyond repair.

We played a major role in getting a new campaign financing law in 1971. Then, with the help of 1,000 volunteers throughout the country, Common Cause monitored enforcement of the new law throughout the '72 campaign. We uncovered widespread violations. We filed complaints against 128 Democrats and 98 Republicans—but we evened that out somewhat by suing the Committee To Re-Elect the President. Through that suit we forced disclosure of the list of secret contributors to the Committee. And it was indeed quite a list.

Studying that list, one can learn quite a lot about the underground rivers of money that have flowed so strongly in American politics.

Everyone senses the corrupting power of money, but few grasp the power of secrecy to subvert the public process.

An ancient Latin saying on secrecy is: "Amphora sub veste numquam portatur honeste." It means "No one carries a jug under his coat for an honest reason."

Secrecy is fatal to accountability—and accountability is the central ingredient of free self-government. Citizens cannot call public officials to account if citizens are denied the information which would make that possible.

Citizens associate secrecy with national security, but most government secrecy has nothing to do with national security. It covers day-to-day decision making on agriculture, energy, commerce, taxation, and hundreds of other matters that bureaucrats and politicians prefer to settle behind closed doors.

When the new Congress met in early 1973, the House of Representatives voted to open their meetings. At the last count, 88 percent of their bill-drafting sessions are now open. This is a profound and revolutionary change

in their way of doing business. And one long overdue.

Special interests and their role in government are linked to the money and secrecy issues. I am always amused when I hear social critics say that our national life is controlled by a few people behind the scenes. The error is in the word *few*. I've been behind the scenes, and special interests are milling about like people in Times Square on New Year's Eve. There are the maritime interests and the teamsters and the farmers and the bankers and the doctors and the municipal workers and the textile manufacturers and so on and on and on.

The problem isn't that such interests exist or that they seek to influence policy. It is their constitutional right to do so. The problem is that too often the special interests operate secretly and use money in ways which corrupt the public process and that too often the public interest is not adequately represented along with all the special interests.

And all of us, no matter what our special interests, should want to see the public interest adequately represented. If the nation fails, we all fail.

I can't emphasize strongly enough that the money and secrecy reforms will bring profound and far-reaching reforms in the patterns of government. The climate is right for change—and change is occurring. In the past 18 months, 30 states have passed major reform legislation on one or more of the Common Cause open-government measures.

State legislators are sensing a grassroots mood in the American people. Even Congress is beginning to sense the mood.

Common Cause intends to reestablish the link of accountability between the citizen and his elected representatives. Today, good citizens leave the voting booth, pat themselves on the back for doing their civic duty, and then go home and forget the whole thing. But the political machines don't forget it. And the behind-the-scenes operators don't forget it. Representatives of all the special interests are in their offices the morning after election day, figuring out the next step. Politics is the only game where the real action begins after the public has filed out of the stadium.

I want to say two things to you who are associated with the activity I care the most about—education.

First of all, take heart. You, as individuals, take heart.

There are concrete, practical things to be done to restore integrity to our government, and if we have the guts and the good sense, we can do them. Citizens can do them. People. You and I.

Second, tell your students that they have a chance. That's all humans have ever had since the dawn of history. But it's an exciting chance. And tell them that you and I and a lot of others are working—through citizen action—to make it a good chance.

Citizen action is good for the democratic process. It is also good that citizens are doing the acting because it gives them a feeling that many haven't had for a long time: the feeling that America is their venture, theirs to preserve.

Ultimately, the greatest danger facing this country is the ever-multiplying numbers of Americans who feel *no* sense of responsibility for the future of this society, *no* concern for its continued vitality, *no* obligation to lend themselves to *any* worthy common purpose.

Motivation and morale are everything in worker productivity, in solving community problems, in preserving the nation's vitality. In my judgment, citizens who do not bother to vote, people who litter the streets and parks, and workers who are satisfied with low productivity and careless workmanship are all suffering from the same malady. They no longer believe that America is *their* venture.

If we want citizens characterized by moral and high motivation, we had better combat the skepticism and loss of confidence that are undermining the citizens' sense of responsibility. We had better give the citizen a role in the great tasks of self-government. That, in my judgment, is essential if we are to save this nation from slow death by demoralization. The hour is late.

It is possible to be foolishly sentimental about "the people." But one unsentimental and inescapable fact about human society—any human society—is that the vitality and coherence of a society begins and ends with motivated people and the ideas they have in their heads of what their society is and ought to be. That's where it begins, and if it ends, that's where it ends. It was true in ancient Greece. It was true in Elizabethan England. And it is doubly true in any society that calls itself a democracy.

Every year millions of American citizens come to Washington and visit our national shrines—the White House, the Capitol, the monuments to our Presidents. But the spirit of the nation is not in those physical structures. It is in the hearts and minds of the citizens who come to look at the structures. If they stop believing, if they lose faith, if they stop caring, the monuments and the great buildings will be meaningless piles of stone.

No matter how accomplished our public servants are, the inner mystery of democracy will always involve that old and good idea: "We, the people." □

Dr. Gardner spoke on this topic at greater length at the Critical Issues Conference preceding the 1974 NEA Convention.

SPECIAL FEATURE ON SOME PROFESSIONAL PARTNERS

The Counselor

By BETTY D. TESH
Counselor, Elkin (North Carolina) High School.

Ask school counselors to lay bare their fondest dream, their most cherished desire. I'll bet my state retirement that it is to spend their school day counseling.

To counsel (be engaged in forming helping relationships with students who voluntarily seek such relationships) is the work of the school counselor; and it is in this area more than in auxiliary tasks such as aptitude testing, follow-up, and placement that the teacher can be most truly a co-worker.

Let me make clear that I am not calling for teachers to be co-counselors, but fellow members of the guidance team.

I realize that a segment of educationaldom espouses the idea of every teacher's being a counselor. I cannot. If every teacher were a counselor, who would do the teaching? And why should teachers be asked to counsel (or coach football or plan school menus) if they possess neither the training nor the inclination?

So I turn to that dear analogy, precious to writers since 1875 or so, and declare teachers and counselors teammates in the game of guidance and counseling. As counselor, I am carrying the counseling ball. And teachers are blocking, tackling, or running interference. I have my assignment; they have theirs; together we make the plays.

First let's define the assignment of school counselors and then see how teachers complement them.

Counselors are trained individuals hired on the assumption that almost all children will, at some time in their educational pilgrimage, face a decision, a problem, a life circumstance they feel incapable of handling alone. Yet, more than a solution is needed.

Learning *how* to go about reaching solutions in general while actively engaged in finding a specific solution is the goal of a student in quest of maturity. And the counselor is the person designated to be available, to be "aware and there" throughout such a search. The counselor ought to be a person students can count on to be interested in both *who* they are and *what* is happening to them.

So, we have the school counselor ready to assist students on their growing edges. And, we have children who want assistance.

But then we come to a problem: How do the children get from where they are to where the counselor is? Or why should they even decide to approach this stranger rather than their Aunt Hattie, a friend in the ninth grade, or a plain-wrapped package? This brining together is the assignment for the teacher.

Children may have the decision to see a counselor made for them, of course, and this is often done. Counseling relationships can and do begin at such a point. But in the ideal, the could-be-should-be world, children benefit most from a counseling relationship which they voluntarily choose.

Now, we know that children seek few things voluntarily: A way out, a shorter method, and a seat

by the window about exhausts the list. In order to approach a counselor voluntarily, students must have a preconceived impression that help really is forthcoming from that direction.

Certainly the responsibility for making and maintaining a reputation for usefulness falls upon the counselor, but just as certainly the teacher has the greatest opportunity for encouraging students to use guidance services.

Teachers, therefore, should assist in the work of counseling by helping make counseling a visible option.

The obvious method is to give counselors opportunities for student contact: Invite them into the classroom to present some information. It may be a 10-minute talk about careers which employ the skills the students are learning or a slide presentation of study techniques. The topic is not so important as the interaction that will give students an opportunity to "taste the wares."

This technique is more effective for junior high pupils who have not had an elementary school counselor than it is for senior highs, of course, and most effective in the upper elementary years when pupils may just be beginning voluntary referral.

I have entered classrooms in such roles as a supplement to a chapter on the healthy personality in a health class, as an ancient firsthand authority on problems that faced adolescents of the 50's, and as the administrator and interpreter of an interest survey for a shorthand class. After each classroom encounter, I received several voluntary referrals—students for whom the group contact opened a door to individual communication.

Another means by which teachers may encourage

This Maryland high school student knows that she can count on her counselor to be "aware and there."

voluntary counseling on the part of students is the Positive Input.

Do you remember your English teacher's instructions on identifying characters in novels? First, consider what the author says about them; second, notice what the characters say about themselves; and, finally, listen to what they say about each other. That lesson also applies to counselors.

The student handbook may report that the counselor is available to all students who desire his or her assistance. The counselor may speak in assembly, expressing willingness to meet with students. But neither of these messages carry as much weight as a single positive remark by a faculty member. (Which itself carries only a fraction of the weight of a student comment.)

A positive comment about the work of the counselor, even spoken in passing (conversational input, if you please), often makes the difference between a child who struggles alone and the one who says, "Help me."

There is a teacher in my school who almost singlehandedly fills up my appointment book without ever making a single direct referral. Week after week, students open conversations by saying, "Well, Mrs. Allnutt said the other day that you were pretty good at figuring out things. . . ." or "Mrs. Allnutt said you were a good listener, and, boy, do I need somebody to listen!"

To speak positively about the counselor is to build a stronger counseling environment in the school. Whether you like the counselor personally is not the question. The basic question is, Do you think the idea of a counselor is worth supporting?

At this point, I think of an obvious suggestion. It is possible that some teachers do not encourage use of the counselor because they themselves are not familiar with the services offered. Teachers should take the time to get to know the counselor and seek to become cognizant of the kind of assistance he or she can give. It may not even be out of line for teachers to suggest an in-service education program centered on guidance services.

Let us suppose now that the school has a climate which is conducive to real utilization of the guidance staff: Students and teachers are familiar with the counseling services available, and both groups hold the counselor in positive regard. What can teachers do then to insure a successful counseling experience for any of their pupils who are engaged in the process?

The first responsibility of a teacher is to respect the right of the counselor to confidentiality and the right of the student to privacy.

No matter how piqued their curiosity, teachers will make a positive contribution to the counseling relationship if they judiciously refrain from trying to discover just what is taking place in the guidance office. I don't believe most teachers realize what pressure they put on counselors when they ask, "So what did Ellen tell you about the fight?" or "Well, has Ralph admitted smoking pot?"

Counselors are professionals bound by a code of ethics to maintain confidentiality. Because we are also teachers' co-workers and friends, we may find it difficult to gracefully avoid their direct questions about the counseling relationship.

Teachers should respect the student's right to privacy even more than they respect the counselor's. Sometimes even the youngsters with whom a teacher has the greatest rapport do not want to share confidences. Younger children, especially, may not know how to avoid answering a teacher's questions except by being rude.

Occasionally, information will come out in counseling sessions that will be passed on to teachers because the counselor feels that this information is needed to improve the instructional process. Use care in dealing with such disclosures!

I recall once informing a teacher that one of my counselees, a very shy and timid girl, had mentioned several times how uncomfortable she was in that particular teacher's class. It seems she was sandwiched between two caustic, highly critical individuals who incessantly made fun of her work. With several other options open to him, this teacher chose to bring the problem before the class. "The counselor tells me that Joe and Nancy are picking on Lucy, and she doesn't like it. Now you three had better straighten the situation out!"

Lucy was crushed, Joe and Nancy were mad as hops, and I was left holding an awkward bag.

Subtlety is the soul of good cooperation with the counselor, I would say. If Edgar comes to me concerned about lagging geometry grades, and he and I hassle through all possible causes and some likely looking possibilities for improvement, it is possible that I, or any other counselor, will make some contact with his geometry teacher. We may say, "I think Edgar could use a little morale boost. Have you noticed any recent improvement that you could praise him for?" But, if the teacher returns to Edgar with a smile and a remark that "The counselor wants me to get you through geometry," well, Edgar is pretty sure that a collusion of sorts is going on and that he isn't really the master of his fate at all.

This, then, is the only key to the successful team effort of counselors and teachers—that we respond to each other with respect and courtesy and that we are in agreement that everything we do must be for the good of the child. □

The School Psychologist

By MICHAEL J. CHRIN
School Psychologist, Kent, Ohio, City Schools.

The specific responsibility of a school psychologist depends directly upon the total number of children and youth in the school district, availability of other pupil personnel workers, community referral resources, and educational alternatives provided within the schools. The National Association of School Psychologists recommends that ideally there should be one school psychologist for every 500 children but, in any event, at least one school psychologist for every 1,500 children.

School psychologists' services generally include teacher and parent conferences for an individual child with a learning and/or adjustment problem; recommendations for helping resolve individual child problems; counseling; providing consultation with regard to problem areas, such as classroom management, child study, and test interpretations; conducting in-service sessions for teachers; initiating and leading parent information sessions; and identifying children and young people with potential school problems.

School psychologists commonly make recommendations about such things as developing, implementing, and monitoring an individualized educational program for a child in a special education class, a resource center room, or the regular classroom. They also recommend referrals to other specialists, such as physicians, special education consultants, remedial reading consultants, tutors, counselors, speech and hearing therapists, and school nurses.

Individualized recommendations for the classroom teacher could include: Shorter assignments; oral reports and exams instead of written ones; differential time expectations for written assignments in class and at home; avoidance of red marks and negative comments on daily papers (mark the *correct* answers); brief individual talks and *listening* periods with child; opportunity for child to express feelings by writing, telling stories, drawing, role-playing; helping all pupils to understand and accept individuals who are different; optimal seating based on sensory disability or sociogram; and short-term isolation.

The above is a sample listing of actual recommendations that have been implemented to help children experiencing learning and adjustment problems. (An excellent summary by Ralph Blanco of 50 practical recommendations to aid selected exceptional children and children with school phobia, under achievement, and shyness is included in the January 1970 issue of *Psychology in the Schools*, pp. 29-37.)

In addition to recommendations and services previously mentioned, the school psychologist provides the classroom teacher with an educational/psychological oral and written report regarding an individual child's specific strengths and weaknesses in school ability, emotional stability, basic academic skills, and total language. Included is information about the child's approximate level of academic achievement, mental development, rate of learning, functional vocabulary level, verbal ability as compared to performance ability, and ability to express himself or herself in writing. Information about maturation level of eye-hand coordination is provided in the case of young children. At the high school level, measured as well as demonstrated interest is determined and aptitude testing is included. Most desirable learning channels are suggested for the child and any specific visual, auditory, perceptual, or memory problems are cited.

Most teachers are also particularly interested in children's emotional stability and their measured as well as demonstrated social skills. Questions frequently asked about pupils are: How do they feel about themselves and others? How do they react to frustration? Do they give up easily? Do they have generalized anxieties? Do they lack inhibitions? Do they seem to have an unusually high need for peer approval?

School psychologists also attempt to determine the possible causes of learning and/or adjustment problems. It is quite difficult, however, to determine with any degree of confidence the definite primary etiology of a learning and/or adjustment problem. The specific cause may not be immediately significant in planning an instructional program for a specific child. For example, it doesn't make any educational difference to a teacher whether the major contributing factor to a child's hyperactivity and short at-

tention span is brain damage, hyperthyroidism, or hypoglycemia.

The *long-term* consequences for the child, however, of ignoring possible etiologies can lead to compounding emotional problems; to grossly inappropriate educational placement; or even, in rare cases, to fatal consequences.

The documented critical need to investigate all possible etiologies of children's school problems is illustrated as follows from my own experience:

Several years ago in our district, an extremely hyperactive, disruptive five-year-old whom I will call Frank Enigma was referred to me for special education placement because he was believed to be either emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded.

Frank refused to participate in any of the group kindergarten activities and never spoke except to repeat what someone else had said. He understood what was said to him, however, because he would respond to simple requests, such as, "Close the door."

A behavior log maintained by an extremely competent teacher indicated that Frank was more cooperative and attempted to participate in selected activities early in the morning but his negative behavior significantly increased prior to noon.

I made three unsuccessful attempts to assess his school ability by administering nonverbal individual intelligence tests. Frank tried only a few items at each interview and became quickly frustrated, screamed, and ran around the room.

Eventually, after further efforts by the teacher and by the school speech pathologist, the parents took Frank for an intensive psychiatric examination at a local hospital for emotionally disturbed children. They were very shocked to be told that Frank was severely retarded and should be in a program for trainable children with IQ's below 50.

After a detailed staff conference with the parents, principal, teacher, speech therapist, counselor, school nurse, and me, it was decided not to transfer Frank to a trainable class.

Fortunately, Frank was then referred to a local pediatrician to determine if any medical problem was contributing to his abnormal behavior. The examination revealed that Frank had hypoglycemia, a deficiency in blood sugar. Treatment was prescribed and in a short time Frank's behavior began to improve at a rapid rate, at home and in school.

On a subsequent individual IQ test, Frank scored in the average range of intelligence. Today he is getting B or C grades in regular classes!

As Frank's case illustrates, all children with behavior problems should routinely have a compresensive medical examination by a competent physician. Psychological or social factors are only a part of the possible causes of learning/adjustment problems. Hyperactivity, for example, could be the result of many different kinds of physiological deficiencies that only a physician can treat.

Cases involving two other children further illustrate the need for continued study and referral after an instructional program has been initiated for a child with learning problems. Both children were enrolled in our learning and behavioral disability program during the past 10 years. Both were found to have brain tumors. Unfortunately, the tumor of one child was not discovered until after his death, but the second child's tumor was detected when he had an electroencephalogram (EEG) for entrance into the program.

One can't help but wonder how many deficiencies may be contributing to a child's school problem but remain untreated or undetected because they are often overshadowed by the first or primary disability. This is often true of the educable mentally retarded (EMR) or those with a learning disability. How many EMR children have visual, hearing, or emotional problems *also* interfering with their learning?

The need for comprehensive evaluation of and information on all learning modalities for children experiencing school problems cannot be overemphasized. Children who demonstrate sudden changes in behavior or learning require particular attention.

In the past, most children were not referred to the school psychologist until after they were experiencing academic frustrations or had become behavior problems. In recent years, more emphasis has been directed to the prevention of children's problems or at least to earlier identification and intervention. For example, group screening procedures for potential problems have been developed and implemented, particularly at the primary level. Personnel for these procedures has varied from teams of pupil personnel-specialists to teams of parents who have been trained to administer a specific screening test.

Other attempts in prevention include workshops for teachers on topics such as behavior modification or individualizing instruction. Child study teams of selected teachers in each building have been organized, trained, and coordinated by school psychologists. High school youth working as teacher aides and tutors with elementary children experiencing academic problems have had encouraging results.

Determining realistic academic or behavior expectations for an individual child with a problem is critical and time-consuming. It requires maximum current information about his or her work rate, differential school abilities and disabilities, language, basic academic skills, and personality. Teachers need a school psychologist as a member of their team! □

SOME PROFESSIONAL PARTNERS
(Continued)

The School Social Worker

By **HELEN R. NIEBERL**
Student Services Specialist/
Social Worker, Seattle Public Schools.

How can the classroom teacher and the school social worker of today work cooperatively in order to help students acquire a sense of competence, to help them function as responsible citizens? How can they spot conditions in the system which contribute to children's problems? How can they work together at providing a rich and stimulating environment in which all children and youth can prepare themselves for the world in which they have to live?

As in the past, the school social worker in the 1970's continues to help individual children with personal adjustment, but the focus now is more likely to be on helping the child acquire a sense of competency, a readiness for continued learning, and a capacity to adjust to change. Moreover, today's school social worker is striving to make the school more responsive to the needs of the child. Let me give some examples from my own situation to clarify what the recent focus means in terms of getting help to the classroom teacher.

To me, working together begins with getting to know the teachers and staff. I am open in stating my commitments: I want to get to know people. I want to understand the school and its community and the factors influencing children's learning. Sometimes, teachers invite me to sit in on their classes, and sometimes I ask if I may visit.

In addition to making myself physically available by getting out from behind my desk and going where the teachers and the children are, I also make myself psychologically available: I try to listen sensitively, to be receptive, to tune myself in to teacher concerns. I perceive my relationship as collegial.

As the teacher and I share our concerns about a child or children, we tentatively identify the problem. Then we begin to plan actions to move toward our goals. Together we examine alternative ways to use my service: I could sit in on a parent conference, be part of a three-way student-teacher-social worker conference, conduct a class meeting, help formulate a questionnaire, interview a student about his or her difficulties and goals for improvement, and so on. The teacher and I agree on a plan of action and evaluation. As we examine our experience, we learn together and from each other.

Example 1: The social worker and teacher cooperate to solve problems involving one student.

One day when I dropped by the room of a young third grade teacher, she greeted me with, "I'm at my wit's end over Monique. She's defying me in class; she even defied the principal! I talked with her mother, and she has whipped her for defiance, but it just keeps on. She's bright, but you should see the sloppy work she's been doing lately!"

After the teacher and I explored the situation, we agreed that I should talk with Monique. When Monique arrived at my office, I told her what I had heard about her troubles and asked her what *she* wanted. Angrily, she said, "I want people to quit hassling me and to stop telling my mother bad things about me." I asked her how she thought we could make this happen. With despair, she answered, "There isn't any way! Everybody is mad at me." I said I could see how she would feel that way, but I thought she and her teacher and I could find a solution if she were willing to try it with us. She was.

When the three of us met, I spoke for Monique saying she wanted people to quit hassling her and to get a good report for her mother. The teacher said she would like this, too. Then I asked Monique what she thought she could do to stay out of hassles and get a good report. Thoughtfully, Monique replied, "I could quit fighting, do my work, and stop talking back." Together we decided that this would do it, and so I drew up a contract that looked like this:

Behavior Contract
Week of April 15-April 19

I, Monique, agree to perform the behaviors listed. At the end of each day, my teacher and I will have a conference. She will give me a check mark in each area where I have succeeded. I may have this contract to take home at the end of the week.

	M	T	W	Th	F
1. Stay out of fights					
2. Do my work					
3. Don't talk back to my teacher					

Signatures:

(Monique) _____

(teacher) _____

(social worker) _____

Monique succeeded in her first weekly contract

and asked the teacher if she could make another.

Example 2: Teacher and social worker assist an entire group to solve a problem.

One day over lunch, a sixth grade teacher told me of a problem involving her entire class. "They've never liked Randy, but today they're very angry with him because he got into some trouble in music class, and the teacher held them all back from going to P.E. Bad feelings are constant, and we can't seem to get things settled down enough so they can work. I hope you can help straighten things out."

The teacher and I adjourned to a private spot to plan a way to deal with this situation. We set these goals: (1) to improve pupil listening and communication skills, (2) to help class members describe the behavior that upsets them, (3) to enable them to describe their feelings about it, and (4) to help the group decide on a code of conduct.

We agreed that I would meet with her and the class and lead the discussion. Before the meeting, I placed two rules on the chalkboard: (1) one speaker at a time; (2) before speaking, each person has to repeat what the preceding speaker has said.

When the meeting began, I said the two rules were to help make sure that we listened to each other. Then I demonstrated paraphrasing. In the ensuing hour, pupils aired their individual gripes and feelings. I made sure that behavior was described, not evaluated; that feelings were described; and that everyone had a chance to speak.

At a second meeting, I asked the group to list ways of behaving which would allow each person to feel respected. Different class members made suggestions. After each suggestion ("Don't snatch anyone's hat," "Don't make fun of people"), I checked for consensus and then listed agreed-upon items.

A class member copied down this code of conduct as it evolved. The next day the list was reproduced and a copy given to each class member.

The teacher and class members later told me that the discussion and the code helped them deal with other stressful incidents as they occurred.

Example 3: The school social worker may help teachers and administrators see the contributions students could make to the school.

After several months as part of a staff in an elementary school, I learned through informal conversations with some well-adjusted sixth graders that many pupils felt apathetic and uninvolved in the life of the school. One of them said that nobody ever asked pupils their opinion about what ought to be done to solve some of the school's problems. A girl spoke up and gave two examples: the lack of sufficient playground equipment and the presence of litter on the school grounds. The pupils agreed that they could help with some of these problems but that they were never asked to do so.

I gathered some more data including the fact that there had been a short-lived student council a few years before. I also talked with several teachers who expressed interest in devising a procedure for enlisting pupils to work on school problems.

I then met with the principal and discussed the children's remarks with him. He gave his support to my inviting teachers of intermediate grades to discuss instituting an elected student council. The purpose was stated as securing student input about school needs and problems. The teachers were enthusiastic. I agreed to be student council adviser, a role I was happy to take as it helped me avoid the stereotype of the person to whom problems are sent!

The council was organized and has now operated for almost two years. It has made some contributions to improve quality of life at school, but, more importantly, it has enabled intermediate students to have a measure of self-government.

Example 4: Classroom teachers and school social workers may work together to remedy conditions in the system which contribute to children's problems.

Last fall I heard from several sixth graders that they were very uneasy about going on to junior high. They made such remarks as "I'm scared to go" or "All of the kids at junior high carry knives." One girl said, "I'm afraid I might get raped."

When I checked with the teachers, I learned they were hearing similar remarks. When I talked to the principal, she encouraged me to see what could be done to alleviate this anxiety.

My first move was to arrange for two different groups of ninth graders to come to our school to tell the sixth graders about the junior high program, activities, and rules and to answer questions.

Next, I met with the counselor for incoming seventh graders, and he and I planned for the sixth graders to have a mini-day in seventh grade—touring the junior high building, sampling some seventh grade classes, and lunching in the cafeteria. The sixth grade teachers and I arranged to make the trips during the spring months.

All who work in a school have a continuing need to keep aware of changing conditions in society, in the community, and in the school itself. With this in mind, some of the teachers and I participate in evening and weekend workshops and seminars, seeking to renew ourselves, to deepen understandings, and to practice different skills.

On the job, developing a sharing partnership seems to me to be the best possible way for the classroom teacher and the school social worker to work cooperatively to help students acquire a sense of competence and function as responsible citizens. □

SOME PROFESSIONAL PARTNERS
(Continued)

The Speech Pathologist

By ELINOR L. ZASLOW
Speech and Language Clinician, Montgomery County, Maryland, Public Schools.

In September, Roger's second grade teacher left a note for the speech pathologist: "Pls. check Roger Welch, Rm. 7." The speech pathologist took Roger to her room the following week. After talking with him for a few minutes, she sent him back to his class and left the following notation on a form in the teacher's mailbox: "Roger's speech skills seem to be within normal limits. His only problem is a distorted *r* sound which is not stimulable to correction at this time. I will schedule him for recheck next year to see how it's developing." This was one of 35 forms she left for teachers that day.

Roger's teacher filed the form in his cumulative folder and filed the speech pathologist in her mental compartment labeled "Specialists Who Are No Help." Her real concern had not been with Roger's *r* sound, the distortion of which she had frankly not noticed.

What actually worried her was the fact that Roger did not seem able to follow a class discussion. He looked alert and paid attention but made no contribution unless prodded. When he did talk, his content was often related only tangentially, if at all, to what was under discussion. His comprehension seemed poor in reading, too. Yet his drawings were quite mature, and he seemed fairly intelligent.

She wondered if he had a hearing problem, even though he'd passed the first grade hearing screening. The speech pathologist had offered no clue.

In January, Roger's teacher unexpectedly moved to another part of the country. The new teacher stopped the speech pathologist in the hall after school one day and asked to talk to her about Roger. She described his difficulties in reading, following directions, and taking part in oral discussion.

By mutual agreement, the speech pathologist visited Roger's classroom during a discussion period. Then she had Roger come back to her office again. This time she sampled his language comprehension and expression on a number of formal and informal measures. She then discussed her findings with the teacher and Roger's parents. Apologizing for not having noted his problems earlier, she scheduled regular sessions with Roger three times a week to work on specific language deficits which were keeping him from following the rapid give-and-take of the classroom.

He had difficulty understanding locational words (top, bottom, middle, left, right, over, below, between, etc.); understanding plural forms and possessives; distinguishing between words which sound similar; and learning homophones. With the help of the speech pathologist, Roger made rapid improvement, gained confidence, and came out of his shell.

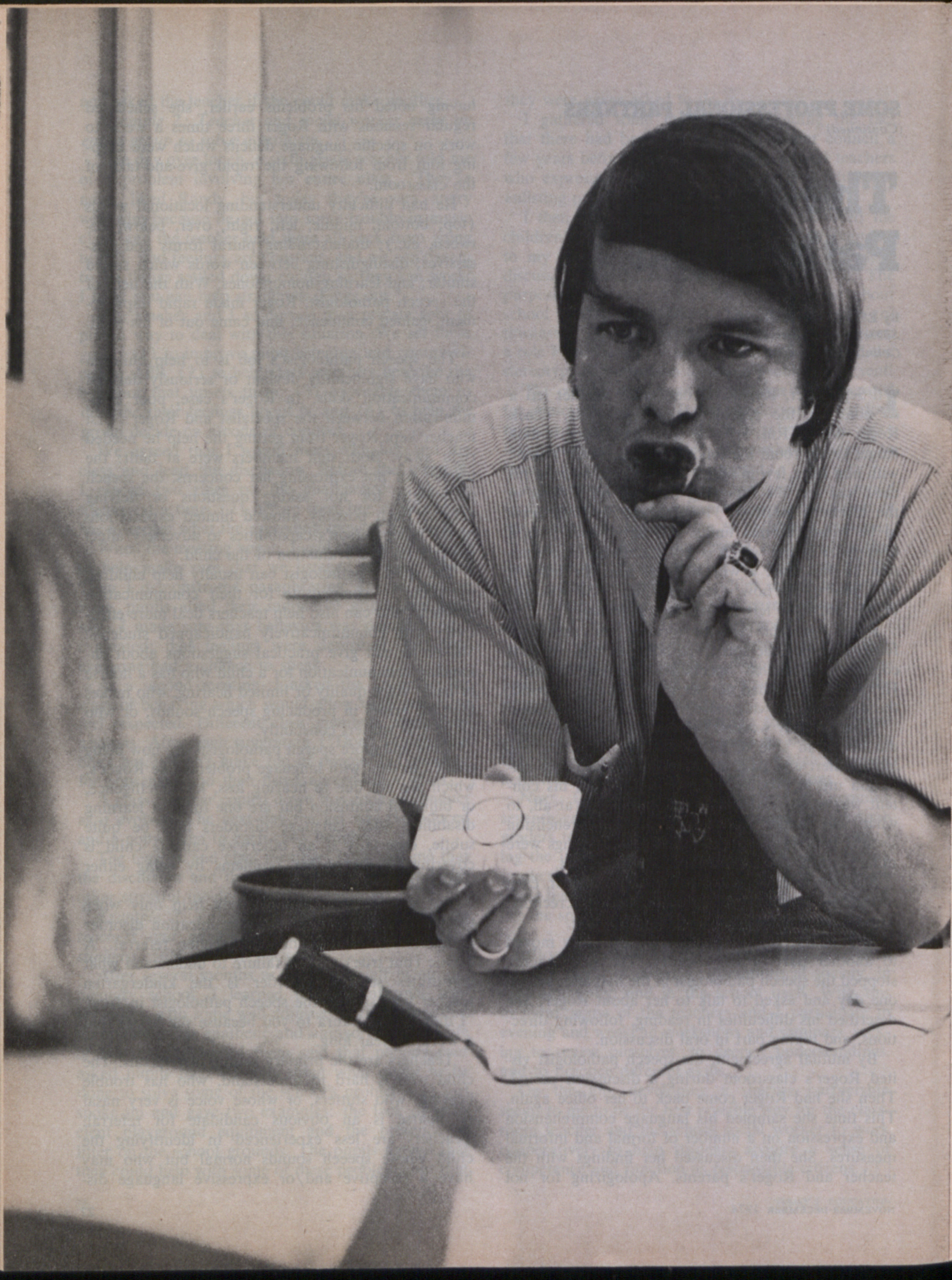
The speech pathologist's job is to help children who have significantly deviant or seriously delayed communication skills. In Roger's case, poor communication between the specialist and Roger's first teacher kept Roger from getting the help he needed right away. Both staff members were at fault: the teacher for not expressing her concerns, the speech pathologist for not asking questions or delving deeper. Each possibly allowed limited expectations of the other person's capabilities to adversely affect the referral and evaluation of the child.

The speech pathologist can usually help children overcome or compensate for their communication problems and can also help teachers deal more effectively with communicatively handicapped students. She or he can give practical suggestions about enhancing communication for a child who has a hoarse or nasal voice quality or limited hearing, who makes multiple errors in producing speech sounds, or who clutters or stutters constantly.

More and more speech pathologists are now being trained to deal with language problems like Roger's, which are not due to hearing loss, low intelligence, or bilingual confusion but are one form of learning disability. Such language disorders may be quite subtle, especially if an otherwise capable child is covering up his or her problems by being either very quiet or obstreperous.

But the speech pathologist can help only when the child who may have a communication disorder is identified, usually through teacher referral. A classic (but true) case of failure to understand what constitutes such a disorder is the kindergarten teacher who said to the speech pathologist in June, "I didn't refer Laura to you because she hasn't said a word all year long."

Teachers are the primary source of referrals. The child who is hard to understand, who has trouble hearing, who stutters, or whose voice is very nasal or hoarse is an obvious candidate for referral. Teachers are less experienced in identifying the child whose speech sounds normal but who may have a receptive and/or expressive language dis-



ability. Possible language difficulty is indicated when the student often exhibits some of the following behaviors:

- says "thing," "stuff," "you know," or gestures to designate common words
- makes irrelevant comments; goes on a tangent
- makes numerous grammatical errors not expected at his age
- is highly literal and concrete in interpreting information
- watches others before trying to follow oral directions
- raises his or her hand, then forgets what to say
- apparently understands a process, then forgets it or is unable to apply it to a slightly different task
- has difficulty sequencing stories or problems
- is very quiet and participates as little as possible or distracts with inappropriate behavior
- seems to be functioning below potential level.

The more specific the teacher can be in telling the speech pathologist about a pupil's communication difficulties, the more pertinent the speech and language evaluation can be.

If the school has a regular assessment and placement team, the speech pathologist can serve as a member and contribute toward developing total plans for students. If there is no team or regular staffing procedure, the speech pathologist will discuss with the principal or counselor the need for any medical consultation (arranged through the school nurse) for hearing or voice problems or a further referral to the psychologist or school social worker about psychological or social aspects of the communication problems.

If the school has a reading specialist, diagnostic-prescriptive teacher, or special education teacher, consultations between any of them and the speech pathologist will be a natural outgrowth of their mutual concern for certain students. In addition, the speech pathologist may confer with the physical education teacher about a child's balance and coordination. The parents will be consulted and informed and may be directly involved in helping the child.

The teacher should expect to be involved in the decisions made about the student's program and receive a clear report of the speech pathologist's findings and plans for the student. The speech pathologist can suggest many ways for the teacher to help pupils who have classroom communication problems.

These may range from developing a particular format for asking questions of the student who stutters, such as giving his or her name first and then giving a multiple-choice question ("Bob, which branch of Congress is elected on the basis of population: the House of Representatives or the Senate?") to helping the child who has trouble recalling nouns rapidly by providing the first sound of the word he or she is trying to remember, If teachers know which specific skills various children are working on with the speech pathologist, they can listen and praise them genuinely for some improvement.

The teacher can also help the speech pathologist by indicating which communication skills seem to be most urgently needed, so that the remedial work can "pay off" in the classroom. The pupil's social studies, science, or literature unit may become the basis for remedial work. Maybe just helping the pupil pronounce the teacher's name correctly or talk in a louder voice will help.

Having the advantage of working with children individually or in small groups, the speech pathologist often knows a child as well as or even better than almost anyone else in the school. The pathologist can thus contribute uniquely to staff and parent conferences regarding individual students. But children may perform quite differently during remedial speech sessions in a quiet room than they do in the noisier, more distracting classroom. By comparing notes and keeping in touch regularly, the teacher and speech pathologist together can enhance the child's total program.

With the increased attention to language disorders, some speech pathologists work in only one elementary school, functioning as resource teachers for language-impaired children or even as classroom instructors for students with severe language handicaps. Some speech pathologists are assigned full-time to schools for orthopedically handicapped, hearing-impaired, or retarded students. Others work primarily with Head Start or younger children. But most serve several elementary schools.

Secondary school coverage by speech pathologists is minimal in many communities because the emphasis is on early diagnosis and treatment. Some school systems compensate by offering after-school and summer-school remedial speech programs for older students. One promising use of the speech pathologist's knowledge is teaching about speech and language development to Family Life classes in high school to help future parents prevent disorders.

In summary, school speech pathologists are persons trained to help students whose disordered or delayed language, speech, or hearing skills are interfering with potential achievement. They are aware of the need to focus on those communication problems which most affect children's learning and adjustment. As members of the school team, they are respectful of the classroom teacher's day-long, year-long commitment to the progress of an entire class and want to help by making communicatively handicapped children function better and, thus, feel better about themselves. □

The School Nurse

By **NANCY PARKER**
School Nurse, Forest Park Elementary School, East Detroit, Michigan; President, Department of School Nurses, NEA.

Today's school nurse is professionally prepared to recognize and deal with a variety of health problems that affect the school-age child. Her preparation has expanded in the last decade to include the specialized skills and knowledge which enable her to assess a child's growth and development pattern; identify abnormalities that require medical diagnostic referral; plan and acquire educational diagnostic services appropriate for students with special learning difficulties; and counsel teachers about students whose physical, mental, emotional, or social deviations have educationally significant dimensions.

Teachers, being the professionals who have daily contact with pupils, have the opportunity to observe them closely and should be alert to the signals of health impairments which may prevent a student from obtaining optimum learning from classroom experiences. They also need to be aware of the scope of the school nurse's practice to be able to utilize her in seeking to have healthy children to teach.

In-service education provided by the school nurse through written communications or staff meetings is imperative to enhance teachers' level of awareness and skills in recognizing specific signs of possible health problems needing school nurse referrals.

For example, the teacher may note that a pupil is not carrying out assigned instructions, appears to be ignoring the activities in the classroom, and may even be disrupting the classroom. Upon referral, the nurse would use growth and development data, health history, nursing assessment, and screening tests in order to rule out or identify the possibility of hearing loss, inadequate auditory discrimination, hypoglycemia, malnutrition, hyperkinesis, or emotional problems.

Counseling with the parent, the school nurse would then make an appropriate recommendation and referral to a physician, health agency, or school psychologist for proper medical attention or psychological diagnosis. If the student has a medical problem that can be corrected, the school nurse assists the parent in securing the correction; if it is not correctable, she would make any necessary arrangements to provide optimal conditions in the school. If a physician prescribes medication, say for hyperkinesis, the school nurse would see that proper dosage was administered and would report any changes in behavior so that adjustment to the best dosage could be made for the individual student.

In the event that all physical health assessment and diagnostic results are negative, the school nurse then looks to social and emotional causes for physical complaints or unacceptable behavior. As in the case of common complaints brought to her attention, such as frequent stomachaches, she can often uncover emotional causes for these complaints or behaviors.

During this process, she may make a home visit to assess conditions. Using her skills in interviewing to find causes without aggravating existing problems, she may identify a situation that needs referral to the school social worker. Together they can work closely with the family to relieve the emotional strain on the child.

Whatever the health problem, it is vital for the teacher to know that the nurse can help identify problems and offer constructive suggestions to improve learning by relieving problem situations for the child and teacher.

It is common practice in education today to take the results of the school nurse's health assessment to an educational team that consists of teachers, administrators, and other special service personnel, such as social worker, psychologist, and counselor, for group evaluation and follow-up action. A diagnosis and establishment of priorities for action can then be cooperatively made to provide a successful educational experience.

The classroom teacher has learned to depend on the school nurse for assistance with the more obvious health problems of the orthopedically or physically impaired in making educational adaptations that facilitate learning. Special arrangements are often needed for transportation, seating in the classroom, remedial physical education, gross and fine motor coordination activities, adjustments of orthopedic devices, teaching materials for the hard of hearing

and visually handicapped, and sometimes rest periods during the day.

When children enter school with diabetes, epilepsy, or other chronic impairments, the nurse makes special arrangements. Along with the arrangements for handling the impairment, must go a process of education for the teacher and the students in order to make the child's school day as normal as possible. The school nurse includes this in her teacher in-service program, hoping to prevent the panic which may occur when a child has an epileptic seizure or an insulin reaction.

She may also serve as a resource teacher so that pupils will become knowledgeable about a classmate's impairment and can learn how to be helpful friends.

Schools can often utilize the school nurse as a resource teacher of health. Many times she is able to provide appropriate instruction at all age levels in personal hygiene, growth and development changes, physiology, communicable disease prevention, community health problems, available health careers, venereal disease, and drug abuse.

In the areas of VD or drug abuse, she can be a health counselor and source of referral for diagnosis and treatment to adolescent students. She is also able to act as a resource teacher in home and family living classes and in programs for pregnant teenagers by providing instruction in child care and child growth and development.

Health services in a school system are as broad and varied as other special services provided in an educational setting. They depend on the number of school nurses providing service, the philosophy of the school district, and the readiness of teachers to make constructive use of the school nurse.

Teacher referral is the basic ingredient which enables the school nurse to practice her skills of health appraisal, health education, and health counseling and to provide the corrective measures that will result in optimum learning for each student. □

SOME PROFESSIONAL PARTNERS
(Continued)

"Yes, Virginia, There Is a Specialist"

By **ETHEL PETERSON**
Classroom Teacher, Sunnyside Elementary School, Dodge City, Kansas.

Yes, Virginia, there are school specialists who live to contribute to the lives of individual children in our schools. They work and share the cooperation of the school staff just as surely as goodness and mercy are part of the human spirit. I'm sorry, Virginia, that you find it so hard to believe. You must stop basing your judgment on what you see in school and believe what you read.

As a classroom teacher, I'm not really that cynical; I just want to be sure you know the rest of the story. You see, roses are nice. I like their fragrance and beauty, but I also know what happens when the cold winter of reality strikes in the overcrowded, underfinanced schools in which so many of us labor. Let me be specific.

I want to respond briefly to the articles of the specialists. Then I would like to pose some ideas which I think deserve consideration. First, it should be understood that I think the specialists' articles are very good and mostly very practical. The people, through their writing, appear to be humane human beings with skills that would make them a welcome addition to any staff. However, it is not in this vein that I shall write my response. Instead, let me pretend to react as a harried teacher who reads the articles at 10:30 p.m. just after checking 27 math papers (not an unfamiliar role). Here goes:

Mr. Chrin, the psychologist, speaks of the need for one psychologist for every 500 or at least every 1,500 children. Well, what if there's one for every 3,500 as it is here? What shall we do? Most teachers I know wait anywhere from two weeks to two months to get even preliminary checking when they request help. Then it's two months more before any follow-up occurs, because the case load is just too great.

If the teacher waits until a month after school starts to decide help is needed, it could well be six or seven months before any real help is started. School continues here for nine months. If we're lucky, the child is back the next year, and we can hope to follow up on the problem. But, statistics indicate that in large cities, more than 20 percent of the students in some schools will move to a different school during the school year.

Mr. Chrin also refers to a practice of developing, implementing, and monitoring an individualized program for a child within a regular classroom. I can only ask, Can he do that with two visits to the room in an entire year?

His item about seating based on sensory ability is an excellent one. But seating based on a sociogram is probably not realistic. I don't have firmly established seating arrangements where children sit in only one place throughout the school day or week. If I did, I guess I'd wonder when I should draw up the sociogram. Probably just after taking attendance and selling lunch tickets and before collecting picture money and distributing immunization cards.

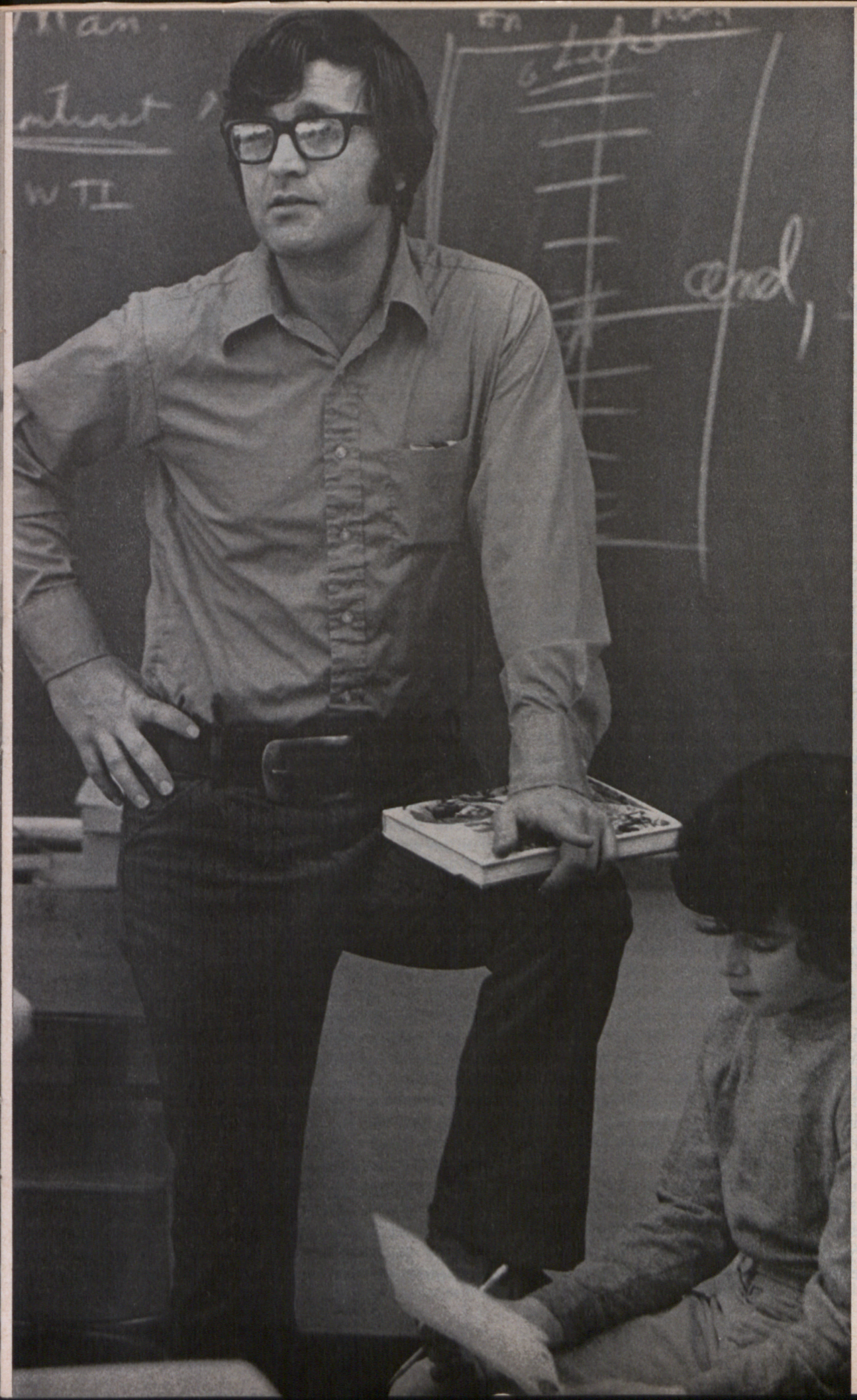
Mrs. Zaslow, the speech pathologist, said it is important that teachers and pathologists have frequent conferences about the child's progress. Last year, the speech teacher in my building saw one of my students for 20 minutes two days per week. Her case load was such that she came into the building and immediately started her classes. She stopped meeting classes only when she had to rush to another building for a similar schedule.

Besides that, as a classroom teacher, I have only 30 minutes out of class every alternate day, so I couldn't have seen her anyway. With those schedules, when would we have that frequent contact so necessary to the well-being of the child?

Mrs. Zaslow mentioned that because of working with children in small groups, the pathologist often knows a child better than anyone else in the school. In 19 years of teaching, I have never known that to be the case, but I have known some specialists who see a child only two hours per week and *think* that's the way it is. Small wonder that teachers get discouraged and pathologists feel isolated!

I'm not familiar with the concept of school social worker, so I'll not respond to Mrs. Nieberl, but will move on to Mrs. Tesh, the counselor. She opened with a football analogy, which I thought was appropriate. She said the counselor runs with the ball, and the teachers run interference. I have a two-in-one question: Who's calling the signals, and against whom are we running?

Mrs. Parker, the nurse, points out that "it is common practice . . . to take the results of the school nurse's health assessment to an educational team that consists of teachers, administrators, and other educa-



The classroom teacher is the real educational specialist who ought to oversee the educational experience.

tional special service personnel, such as social worker, psychologist, and counselor for group evaluation and follow-up action." Such meetings may be part of the specialists' regular school day, but not so for the classroom teacher. And heaven forbid the solution of meeting during the teacher's lunch break! We need so much more time!

Also, when such a team does meet, notice how the specialists outnumber the teacher. To get back to Tesh's analogy, the teacher is obviously going to be blocking for the whole team.

I'm beginning to sound like a professional naysayer, so let me list some things which I think could happen and could make a difference.

First, the special personnel are valuable and necessary, but they're only a fraction of what is needed. Most of the barriers to providing an adequate program for individual children with specialized needs exist basically because of two things: the scarcity of specialists, including their lack of accessibility, and the overwork of classroom teachers, who are frustrated because there are so many more needs than they can reach.

Consider, if you will, this pupil/teacher ratio issue: If we add five specialists to a 20-teacher staff in a school containing 600 students, consider what it does to that magical entity, the PTR. If the ratio is based strictly on the number of teachers, you divide 600 by 20 and arrive at a PTR of 30.

If you add the specialists and now divide the 600 by 25, the new PTR is 24, which sounds like a very healthy situation. Many teachers believe that a class of 30 is too large. They might prefer the hiring of five more teachers instead of adding the specialists, thereby reducing the actual pupil load.

Since this is not really an acceptable answer, how about setting up enough specialists so they would be assigned to only one building—or two at the most? This would solve many problems. If we face reality, we know that outsiders seldom change the philosophical bent or actual direction of an institution in the way that they can if they "live with" a building staff and come to know its philosophy and mode of operation. They must be in and of it to know its problems and to understand how things function.

To have specialists spending time in a building would make them accessible to a teacher or a student when and where they are needed. Also, there would be that extra communication which blossoms best when people know one another.

It would put the specialists more on the level of the teacher, thereby making them more acceptable. If they, too, share the hated garbage detail (lunch duty, hall duty, study hall, and so on ad infinitum), they would be infinitely more accepted by the classroom teacher. (Of course, if they should decide these are abominable tasks not worthy of their efforts and further decide to join the teachers in abolishing the tasks for everyone, I'd sing the "Hallelujah Chorus" for that!)

Sharing the same amount of lunchtime would also make friends of mere acquaintances. I feel a real kinship with anybody who has just eaten a peanut butter sandwich and downed a cup of lukewarm coffee with a cold, north wind whistling down the neck during a 20-minute lunch "hour" spent supervising a so-called playground in December.

Another good aspect would be the possibility of reducing the gossip factor. Most teachers I know are afraid of this problem. When we send any child to a specialist, we are in essence admitting that we haven't the skills necessary to help this child.

We know, and the specialists assure us, that we are not expected to be able to cope with every problem. Yet when the word comes back, just once, that a psychologist or a counselor said, "No wonder he's having trouble in *that* room," our worst fears are confirmed. The gate is locked, and that's that.

I'd like to say that never happens, but it does. I know of no way to completely prevent it. But I do think that having us all in the same building as part of the same team with some of the same assignments and with the same supervisor might lessen it considerably. There's something to that old saw about walking a mile in someone else's shoes.

Actually, put in the words of some ancient sage from somewhere, "It's time to fish or cut bait." Either school systems should give us enough special personnel to do the job or they should not hire any of them. School systems should use the money they spend on special personnel to hire more teachers to cut down our pupil load and, for goodness sake, quit kidding the public about what the schools do!

To go back to the football analogy, maybe it is time we developed the concept of most students' carrying the ball for their own education. The teacher could logically be the quarterback calling the signals as to what play is needed. The teacher is the real educational specialist who ought to oversee the educational experience. The other specialists are valuable only so long as they can block and head off troubles the child may encounter.

Hopefully, on the other side of the goalpost for each child is a healthy future for an alert, alive, fully self-actualizing human being. And maybe, leaning over the parapets of the goalpost, will be some guardian angel who whispers, "Yes, Virginia, there is a specialist and a teacher and a school and an education that exist to enrich the lives of all who encounter them." □

Much I Had Forgotten

By **MADELINE HUNTER**
Principal, University Elementary School, and Lecturer, Graduate School of Education, University of California, Los Angeles.

A previous "Much I Had Forgotten" appeared in the April 1955 issue of the NEA Journal. *In that piece, Dr. Hunter, a former classroom teacher and a former curriculum coordinator, related how she put aside her administrative tasks in September 1953 and took on the responsibility of teaching a special second grade for a year—"22 speech cases, 10 children promoted 'on condition,' most of the group reading in preprimers or not at all."*

In this new "Much I Had Forgotten," Dr. Hunter encounters a group of difficult first graders for a day and is once again reminded "that it is a lot easier to talk about successful teaching than to accomplish it in the real world of the classroom."

"Boys and girls, Mrs. Hunter is going to be your teacher."

"Oh, no!" was the wail of unanimous rejection from this first grade class who did not want anyone to replace their teacher.

What an ego-impaling experience! I am not a new teacher or a substitute teacher. I'm a teacher educator who has had lots of experience in the classroom, but I barely survived this encounter with these first graders.

It all began in an inner-city school when a first grade teacher needed to be "sprung" from her classroom for a conference. A substitute was on the way but had not arrived. If I had known she would never arrive, I might not have been so generous with my offer, "Let me take the class. I haven't worked with a first grade in some time, so the experience will be fun for me." Fun? Little did I know.

I was not even alerted when the first grade teacher said, "Oh, no, Mrs. Hunter, you'd better not. This class has a—uh—real personality." I was to find out later she was a master at understatement to describe them so nicely.

When I first entered the room, children were milling around; no one seemed involved in much of anything; and John, whose name I learned in the first 30 seconds, was buzzing around pestering everyone. The teacher, somewhat embarrassed, explained that she had been waiting for the substitute so she had not started a lesson in case the substitute preferred to do her own thing.

As I took in the situation, the cold realization dawned on me that I would not be enjoying a group of industrious six-year-olds intently involved in fascinating tasks. Instead, I would have the chore of putting together a disintegrating class by creating something to occupy them when I did not have the slightest idea of what they could do, where they sat, what materials or books they had, or even their names.

Except, of course, for John's.

In the first few minutes in the room, I had four opportunities to learn his name as the teacher pulled him out of the paper cup-

board, told him to stop hitting Stacy, made him return the stapler to the drawer from which he should not have taken it, and told him he must stop interrupting.

"Give me a book; I'll read to them," I said grimly. "Then go ahead to the conference or you'll be late."

Generous and thoughtful? Not at all. By then I knew that no sweet smile and cheery greeting was going to pull that group together. I surely did not want the teacher or any other adult to be in the room to see my floundering. There I was, a supposedly competent educator, with a feeling in my stomach that reaffirmed my belief that it is a lot easier to talk about successful teaching than to accomplish it in the real world of the classroom.

It was at that moment that the teacher introduced me to the class, and I was welcomed by their "Oh, no!" Then, rolling her eyes to heaven, the teacher left.

I tried not to take the children's rejection personally. After all, they had never seen me before so they could not possibly know how rusty my first grade teaching skills were. Even though the professional me could acknowledge this fact, the personal me had a hard time accepting their rejection.

How must regular substitutes feel when children daily demonstrate a negative reaction to their entrance into a classroom? Or unsuccessful teachers or student teachers when pupils' negative responses confirm their suspicion that they are not really as competent, or even as likeable, as they would desire to be?

I began trying to gather the group on the rug, praying that the book had some spellbinding potential. John, I found, was not the only innovator when it came to following directions. Trying to get the group together was like trying to handle popcorn. I would get two or three children settled, then while I was gathering some others, I would lose the first few. (Any experienced teacher will recognize my situation and my feelings. I found myself grimly wishing that some legislators, business people, or parents who are critical of teachers could be in my spot.)

Slowly, as I used the educational theory I knew, the group began to cooperate, and even John came to join the others on the rug. Wanting to strengthen his "good" behavior, I used the positive reinforcer, "Good for you, John. You really know how to act."

It was as if I had thrown a firecracker into a volcano. Pleasing the teacher was the last thing John desired. I had barely uttered my words of praise when he jumped up from the group shouting, "I don't wanna listen to the dumb book" and proceeded to dance on top of the tables.

Fortunately, I understood reinforcement theory. If I had not, I would have taken the bait and reacted to John's antics—which was exactly what he wanted me to do. Instead, I gritted my teeth and pretended not to see him, which took some doing.

When he bopped another boy on the head with a book, I was lavish with my attention to the victim. "Why, I'll bet there isn't anyone else who is so grown up he can keep right on listening after being hit like that. You're acting just like a *sixth* grader." Whereupon the boy sucked in his breath, sat tall, and withstood John's onslaught.

Clearly, I could not turn this class loose to work by themselves. My only hope for survival was to weave a spell and keep them on the rug for the remainder of the hour until lunch.

The writer of the story I was reading never would have recognized his tale, for I began to spin it out as long as possible. The story, called "The Uncatchable Mouse," as I recall, had a refrain that went something like this: "The trap went snap. It caught the . . . but it didn't catch Henry."

I had the children clap each time I said *snap* and added "No, sir" at appropriate places in the refrain. "It didn't catch Henry" became "No, sir, it didn't catch Henry. No, sir, no, sir, it didn't catch Henry. No, sir, no, sir, no sir, it didn't catch Henry." The more No, sir's I added to the refrain, the more intense the children's attention and anticipation.

When I got this survival skill really launched, the child I pointed to indicated with his or her fingers the number of times all of us chanted the No, sir. (More time burned up, for they all selected four or five times, and lunchtime and salvation got closer and closer.)

Through this ordeal, three me's were involved, the *classroom teacher me,* the *personal me* (with my ego bleeding), and the *teacher educator me.* Each watched the others perform, feel, and think.

The *classroom teacher me* knew a lot of psychological theory and, as a result of years of training and experience, had encountered similar problems and had a repertoire of professional skills to use.

As for the *personal me,* realizing how it reacted was a real shock. For the first 20 minutes, smarting with humiliation, I found myself praying that no one would come in and see me in the mess. Teachers had often wondered if I were an ivory-towered theorist, and I found myself facing evidence that seemed to indicate that I could not really bring it off in the real world of the classroom.

When I first tried to get the children to the rug, the personal me thought, "What if I were being videotaped?" (I had videotaped teachers countless times.) I would have died of mortification.

(Continued on page 38)

A GREAT BUY FOR STUDENTS, EDUCATORS AND COLLECTORS

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Much I Had Forgotten

(Continued from page 36)

Later, when the group was responding positively to the story, I wished someone had been videotaping the lesson. I wish parents and legislators could see the agony behind difficult teaching and the seeming eternity of chaos out of which the professional is responsible for drawing educational order. I wish they could see the slow, minute steps, not all of them forward, which lead a reluctant (even recalcitrant) learner toward becoming an eager, involved learner.

How useful it would be for new teachers to see a pro getting children ready to learn. How important for those beginners to see the abrasion of the ego that occurs to all of us. How essential for them to perceive that what turns chaos into productive learning is professional competence which builds desirable self-concepts and feelings of worth and achievement for learners—not wishful thinking or divine revelation.

A frightening aspect of the personal me emerged—the revengeful me. I found myself thinking, "Just you wait until I get rid of the rest of these kids, Master John. Then, you and I will have a session at lunchtime, and you'll learn how to listen and how to follow directions." I was appalled by the retaliatory reactions my damaged ego was generating.

I did not like John one bit. There I was, a supposedly successful educator, and he was making a monkey of me. I thought about all the university courses that stress understanding the child. Phooey. How can teachers withstand the emotional and nervous stress that unmanageable pupils present unless they also have the professional skills necessary to deal productively with such pupils? These courses must present those skills, as well as a case for understanding the child.

The *teacher educator me* was experiencing the moment of truth. If this situation was difficult for me after years of experience, what must it be like for new teachers who do not have the theoretical know-how plus experience to guide them through such potentially destructive educational arenas? The teacher educator me found an even more profound respect for the Herculean task of the classroom teacher than I had had before. All of us who are telling teachers how it ought to be done should try doing it ourselves to keep us humble as well as realistic. And we had better make sure that our teacher preparation translates theory into the practical skills and understandings critical to success.

As the story proceeded, John, unable to elicit a negative response from me, was finally "educationally seduced" into joining the group, who were having fun, clapping and chanting their way through the story. Time, story, clapping, chanting, and professional skills merged to produce a participating, enjoying, behaving group.

But I was not deluded. Had I changed the educational prescription and expected anything more than participatory entertainment activities, I would have had an atom bomb on my hands.

Finally, the teacher returned to find her replacement chanting and clapping with an enthralled, involved class that included John! And what happened to *her* ego and *her* professional self-concept? She worked daily with kids who were difficult to manage and now saw another adult working with them in a manner that made everything look easy. I saw the despair in her eyes.

I told the class that I had enjoyed being their teacher and I hoped I could teach them again. The group responded with a warm "Yes, come back," and John, the child for whom I had been planning a thumbscrew at noon, added, "Come back tomorrow!"

"What a darling little boy!" I now thought.

Afterwards, I tried to explain to the teacher what a problem I had had on my hands with her class, how I had prayed for the first 20 minutes that no one would come in the room and see the chaos there, how hard I had worked to pull the group together, and how John had defied me. But she did not believe me. She thought I was only attempting to protect her wounded ego.

My short first grade teaching stint taught me or reminded me of some important principles that are easily forgotten by those of us who are no longer in the classroom. We forget—

- How much easier it is to enthrall a group for an hour than to teach them day after day.
- How teachers feel when they are not performing as well as they wish they were—especially when it's possible that someone will come in the room to observe them.
- How teachers feel about a child who shows the world that they are not as competent at coping with difficult pupils as they would like to be and how their feelings about a problem youngster change when his or her behavior changes for the better.
- How teachers feel when they see someone else who appears successful with a child or a class that has given them trouble.
- How essential valid programs of teacher education and continuing in-service are in helping teachers learn necessary professional skills so that they can cope with the daily problems they will face or are facing in the classroom.
- *How excruciatingly difficult and emotionally exhausting teaching is.*

I am going to take a class again and again so I will never forget. □

Photo: Tom Gladden

NEA TRAVEL

Announces its 1975 South Pacific Tour Program

SOUTH PACIFIC HIGHLIGHTS: Australia, New Zealand, Moorea (French Polynesia)

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5 nights in New Zealand
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YOUR PRICE INCLUDES:

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- Auckland city tour;
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- Rotorua/Maori Village, thermal areas, and Rainbow Trout Springs;
- Attend Maori dance performance;
- Half-day Circle Island tour of Moorea with flower lei greeting upon arrival and shell lei on departure.

NEW on this series for 1975 will be the get-acquainted dinner in Sydney (mentioned above), school visits in Australia and New Zealand, one extra day in Rotorua for a school visit and optional independent activity, AND your visit to French Polynesia, where you will live in first-class thatched bungalows called *fares*.

Program A		Program B	
PC-1	June 30-July 16	PC-2	June 27-July 13
PC-3	July 7-23	PC-4	July 4-20
PC-5	July 14-30	PC-6	July 11-27*
PC-7	July 21-Aug. 6	PC-8	July 18-Aug. 3
PC-9	July 28-Aug. 13	PC-10	July 25-Aug. 10
PC-11	Aug. 4-20*	PC-12	Aug. 1-17
PC-13	Aug. 11-27	PC-14	Aug. 8-24

Because of airline scheduling we are offering a choice of two itineraries. The content of each is identical except for the number of nights spent in Australia and Moorea.

NOTE: Special low-cost round trip fares are available to Los Angeles from the following cities: Boston—$231; New York—$221; Detroit—$179; Chicago—$158; St. Louis—$149; Dallas—$126. You may spend additional time in Los Angeles, provided that you return to your city of origin within 35 days. Tax must be paid on the domestic ticket, however, if you exceed 6 hours in Los Angeles. For members residing in Vancouver, Seattle, Portland and San Francisco, the tour can be taken from your home city at no extra cost in airfare.

***ACADEMIC CREDIT:** Available through Western Illinois University, on both the graduate and undergraduate levels. Registration for credit is optional. Price shown does not include tuition or matriculation fees. For information on course requirements, tuition, and registration for credit, write drectly to: Dean of International Services, Western Illinois University, Macomb, Illinois 61455.

Optional Tours: Note that optional tours to other parts of Australia can be arranged upon request directly through Australian Travel Service in Los Angeles.

To register for a PC 1975 tour, see coupon application on page 57.

Remapping Our World

By R. BUCKMINSTER FULLER
Architect and Educator.

Herewith three world maps providing different ways of comprehending Earthian affairs.

Number one, the Mercator, is familiar. It is a flat stretch out of a cut-open cylinder of paper which had been wrapped tangentially around the equator of a transparent globe of the Earth, on which paper cylinder had been projected the shadow lines of the world globe's opaquely drawn continental outlines. The globe's continental outlines intercepted the rays of a light source in the spherical center of the globe.

The Mercator shadowgram is exactly "true" in size and shape only where it had been tangentially wrapped around the equator. Scale and shape distortion multiplies swiftly as we go north and south from the equator. The poles and polar areas cannot be shadow-projected because the axis of the Earth and the longitudinal surface of the cylinder of paper are parallel to one another, wherefore shadow lines of the polar areas exit unregistered through the cylinder's open ends.

On the Mercator, Greenland appears to be three times the size of Australia, which is exactly the opposite of reality. The Mercator does not show the great continent, Antarctica. One part of Russia is indicated as being 25,000 miles across the map from another part of Russia, though they are only five miles apart. The map was practical and satisfactory for hundreds of years as men sailed primarily east and west following the trade winds and ocean currents within tolerable temperature limits. Today, however, the Mercator fails to identify our new planetary interpatterning relationships—and in fact hides them—ergo, it is to be used only for historical studies.

Map number two is the Dymaxion projection arranged to show the water-ocean world. It may look strange to you. The first time I showed my Dymaxion projections of the world was at Haverford College in 1936, after which the head of the Mathematics Department invited me to his house and asked me to bring along my map pieces. They were in separate triangular tiles which could be put together in a variety of ways, any one of which would unpeel the mathematically projected and icosahedronally resolved spherical Earth's surface and lay it out contiguously in a flat array (see illustration on page 42).

While we were having tea, the professor's children kneeled on the floor and pieced the triangles together as with any jigsaw puzzle.

The professor said, "Darlings, you have the world map upside down." But the father was wrong; there is no up or down in the universe. The children were putting the map together in a logical manner unfamiliar to their father who had a conceptually frozen map reflex as have all the older generations around the world—usually frozen, unfortunately, in a variety of highly biased nationalistic preconceptionings.

The Dymaxion projections of the world have no visible distortion of the relative shapes or the relative sizes of any of their local parts. Map number two is only one important example of many ways of assembling the Dymaxion projection triangles with any selected region of the Earth appearing as the central area. Map number two shows a whole lot of water.

If you identify prominently unique regional characteristics of the globe such as polar coldness and equatorial warmth, you also will find that 75 percent of planet Earth's surface of 197 million square miles is covered with water (139 million square miles of ocean; 6 million of seas; and 2 million of lakes, rivers, and ponds) and that 77 percent of all the land is north of the Equator. What is not visible is that almost 90 percent of humanity lives north of the Equator and 99.9 percent of humanity lives on the dry land. Until the twentieth century, humanity had been preoccupied locally primarily within the

Copyright 1974 by R. B. Fuller

Map number one, the Mercator projection (© *American Map Co., Inc.*).

land areas of the Northern Hemisphere and had no use for a water-ocean world map like this.

I am 79. Not until I was 14 did humans reach the North Pole, and I was 16 when they reached the South Pole, which is shown in the center of map number two. The Mercator has so much North and South polar distortion that humanity didn't realize that most of the world's water is in the Southern Hemisphere.

Map number two is arranged like a three-blade propeller with the Antarctic continent as its hub. The upper right blade contains 58 percent of humanity, i.e., China, India, Malaysia, Australia, and Asiatic Russia (east of the Urals). The upper left blade contains 30 percent of humanity, i.e., Europe, Africa, and European Russia (Russia west of the Urals). The bottom blade contains 12 percent of humanity, i.e., South, Central, and North America.

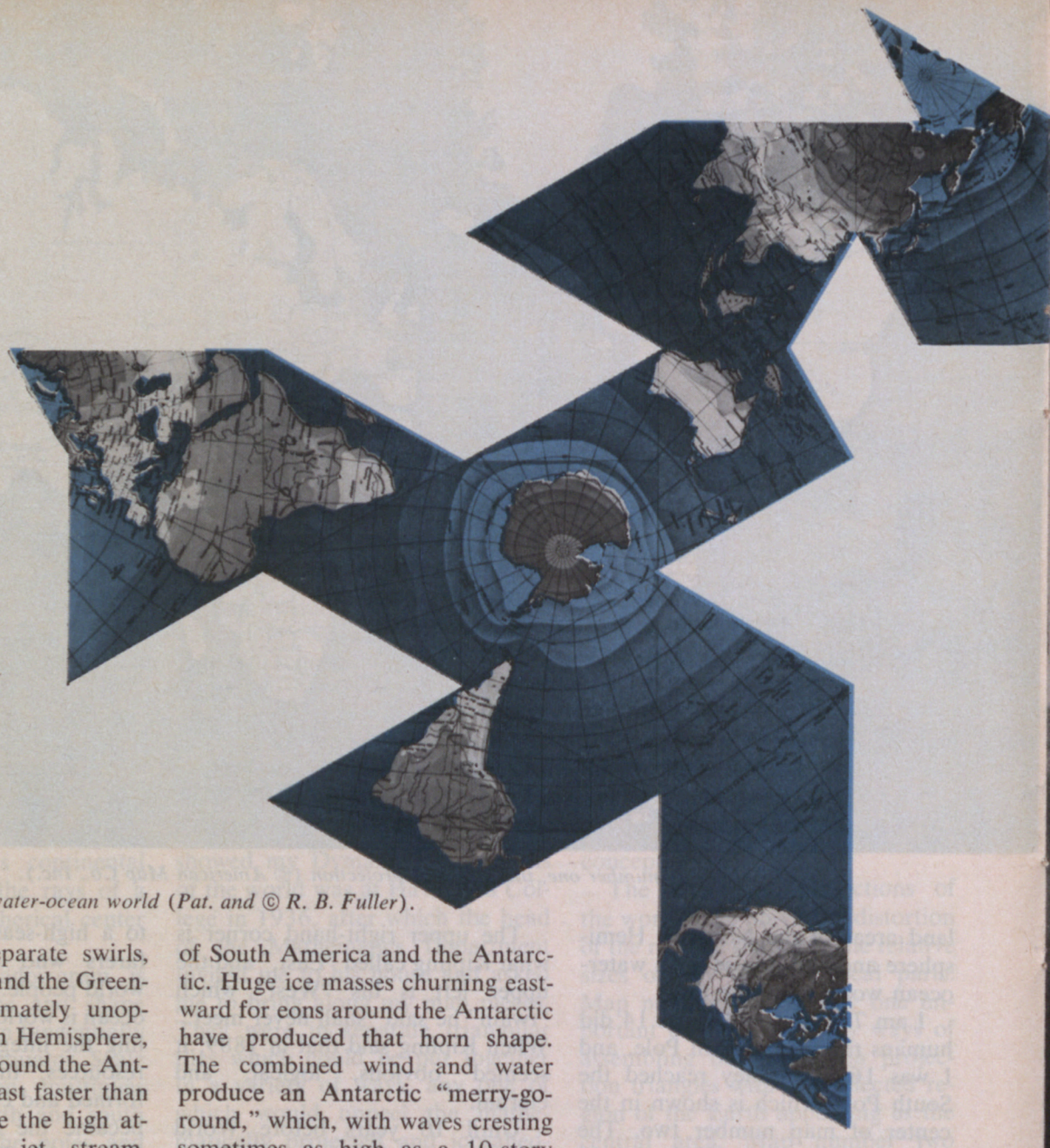
The upper right-hand corner is what Kipling called "East," and the upper left is his "West" which "twain" he said "shall never meet." When Kipling said that in 1889, it seemed obvious, logical, and eternal.

Until 10 years before World War One, my father was a Boston leather importer dealing with the Argentine and India. The fastest he could get to the Argentine or send mail to it was two months—with two months' return trip—because to get from Boston to Buenos Aires everyone had to go via England, there being no direct steamship line. It took him three months to get from Boston to Bombay. Everyone thought of humanity as eternally and remotely dispersed with great oceans lying between.

In map number two, the lands are dispersed from one another and only the omni-intercontinuous world ocean interconnects them. Few humans committed themselves to a high-seas life, but those seafarers who did were inherently world people. Continents are local; ocean is world. Exclusively controlling the integration of the world's resources, the strongest, best-informed and equipped water people became the economic masters of the world. The landlubbers were inherently local people.

As all know, our Earth revolves west to east. So too, do the high atmospheric jet streams circle the Earth's northern and southern polar areas. The atmospheric jet streams also revolve in a west to east pattern, frequently at 200 to 400 miles per hour faster than does the Earth sphere.

Likewise, the Earth's ocean waters try to circle the poles in a west-to-east pattern at faster rates than that of the solid planet. In the Northern Hemisphere, however, they are partially frustrated. In the Arctic Ocean, a submerged mountain barrier divides the west-to-east



Map number two, the water-ocean world (Pat. and © R. B. Fuller).

swirling into two separate swirls, the Bering Sea swirl and the Greenland swirl. Approximately unopposed in the Southern Hemisphere, the waters revolve around the Antarctic from west to east faster than the Earth turns while the high atmospheric southern jet stream, completely unimpeded, revolves much faster than the water.

The air's greater mutability than that of water and water's greater mutability than that of the land suggest that a great astro force is operatively spinning the Earth and its biosphere as does a dynamo spin its contained rotor.

Like the backflowing eddies adjacent to river banks, so too do both the Antarctic waters and lower altitude winds produce intermittently violent reverse wind and water directions. That's why ships find the trip around the Horn so difficult. You see the horn-shaped passage between the southern tip of South America and the Antarctic. Huge ice masses churning eastward for eons around the Antarctic have produced that horn shape. The combined wind and water produce an Antarctic "merry-go-round," which, with waves cresting sometimes as high as a 10-story city building, is usually not so merry. The Antarctic air-ocean turntable takes ships rapidly from the Pacific into the Indian Ocean and from the Indian Ocean into the Pacific again.

I am confident that knowledge and use of this not so merry-go-round was the key secret of both history's and prehistory's world ocean masters. Magellan proved circumnavigation to the public, but I have discovered several clues suggesting that humans had known secretly of the southern polar-go-round for thousands of earlier years. The southern polar-go-round provided the swiftest and shortest route for integrating the world's irregularly scattered resources and people. The process of mastering these violent sea routes induced progressive mathematical discoveries, astronomical navigation, and engineering science which resulted in entirely new technical capabilities for human survival—first on the sea and later on land—all of which in turn produced enormous wealth for those sea masters.

The battles for control of the high seas lanes were lethally fierce. No law of any country could be enforced beyond the limited range of shore-mounted weapons, wherefore

the deep-watered 70 percent of the spherical Earth's surface was outside the law. The sovereigns of the sea *decreed* the sea law and pronounced their rivals to be "outlaws." Both the sovereigns and the outlaws, however, lived exclusively by physical-survival law. Whoever developed superior engineering and did more with the same tonnage or more with less ruled the waves—the others frequently went to the bottom.

Map number two discloses the grand strategy which produced of the British empire, the first global empire in history. Unbeknownst to 90 percent of humanity in the Northern Hemisphere, the British built naval bases with which to guard the southern tip of South America and the southern tip of Africa, as well as Australia and New Zealand. Thus, by controlling quickest access to the Antarctic speed-around, the British controlled the great sea lanes between the world's most important harbors.

Almost a century ago, the U.S. Navy's Admiral Mahan became famous by showing the Americans what the British had long ago discovered: that there is only one world ocean and that its center is the Antarctic. (This strategic control pattern of the world came to an end when air power replaced sea power as the prime weapon.)

This water-ocean map helps us to understand why all of humanity's economic problems until World War One were related to the fact that everybody was isolated and that the resources of the Earth, as far as anyone knew, were lethally inadequate. Not only is 75 percent of the Earth covered with water, but a lot of the 25 percent which is dry land is covered with rocks, snow, or desert.

Only about 10 percent of the Earth's surface was *potentially* arable, while the areas where adequate human life support originally flourished probably amounted to only about 1 percent of the Earth's surface and that flourishing 1 percent was divided into a myriad of remotely occurring local fractions. Those fortunate peoples who found themselves with life support tried desperately to guard their land against other less fortunate and desperately searching tribes of people who frequently invaded them. The fortunate people built high and massive walls around the crown of the highest hill having also a water well central to their fertile fields. When enemies were reportedly approaching, they stored all the food products inside the walls. They then scorched the fields to deprive the already starving enemy and watched them weaken physically until it was an easy matter to vanquish them.

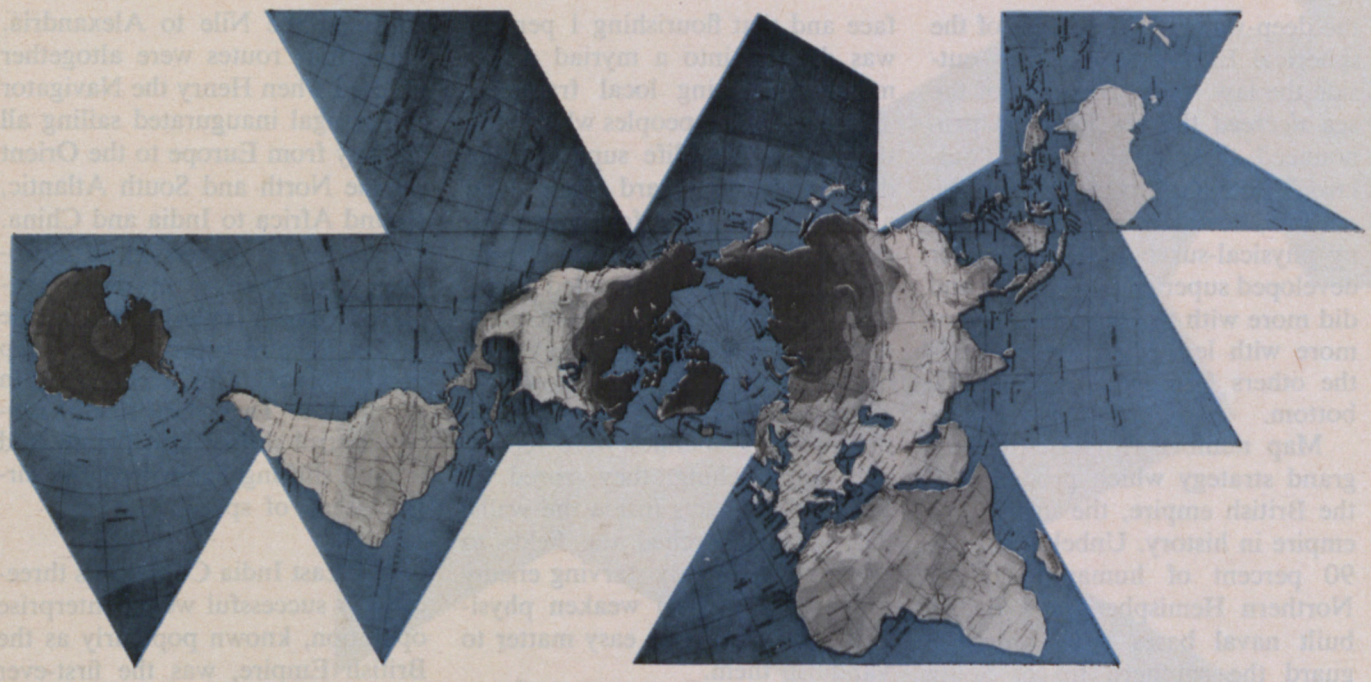
This *city-state* strategy usually proved successful throughout thousands of years. The city-states' citadels were, however, vulnerable to ambitious territory expanders of already successful city-states whose warriors were sustained by a waterborne line-of-supply which enabled them to starve out those inside the walls. The gradual development of ships finally rendered the waterborne, line-of-supply seafarers so powerful that they overwhelmed all the citadelled overlords. Approximately none of the castello walls of Italy were breeched. The occupants were starved out.

The fall of Troy and other fortified citadels and the concurrent successes of such Mediterranean sea masters as those based in unfortified Crete or Venice typified the milleniums-long shift from a predominantly land control to a predominantly sea control over the four Orient-to-Europe trade routes: (1) caravans across Mongolia and waterborne via the Azov, Caspian, Black, Bosphorous, and Aegean Seas; (2) via Sinkiang, Khyber Pass, Afghanistan, Persia, Ionia; (3) via the Indian Ocean, Arabian Gulf, Mesopotamia, and Phoenicia; and (4) via the Indian Ocean, East Africa, South Egypt, and north on the Nile to Alexandria. These four routes were altogether eclipsed when Henry the Navigator of Portugal inaugurated sailing all the way from Europe to the Orient via the North and South Atlantic, around Africa to India and China. Thereafter, a succession of European world-ocean masteries occurred, which culminated in the British Empire supremacy of map number two. This terminated in World War Two when *line-of-supply* control shifted into the air and is now shifting again into the airless ocean of space.

The East India Company's three-century successful world enterprise operation, known popularly as the British Empire, was the first-ever *spherical* world empire. All previous world empires of Charlemagne, Genghis Khan, the Moors, the Romans, or Alexander were flat map empires of "civilization" lying within the thus-far explored Eurasian continent and the northern parts of Africa. Altogether undiscovered by these flat empires' rulers and people, the then "known" world area constituted only 15 percent of the Earth's surface.

Throughout all empire periods—previous to that of the British—people thought naturally of the world only as a flat plane extending omnilaterally to the empire's borders, thence through barbarian wilderness outward to infinity. It, therefore, seemed to be infinitely *hopeable*, ergo validly prayable, if to the right deity, that the hoping individual and his dependents might become lucky enough to join the minuscule ranks of the few who could both survive and prosper.

Through all eras, it seemed clear that there was inadequate life support. Those who controlled it survived; the others perished. Fundamental scarcity still persists as the world economists' model. However, what had been only *hypothetical* became a seemingly proven *scientific* fact at the turn of the nine-



Map number three, the sky-ocean world (Pat. and © R. B. Fuller)

teenth century when Thomas Malthus, professor of political economics of the East India Company College, was the first human to assess the total inventory of vital economic statistics from all the countries around our closed system planet Earth.

The data showed that humans were reproducing themselves at a geometrical rate and their life support substances only at an arithmetical rate, and the Earth being a closed system, it seemed obvious in 1810 that humanity in general was designed to be a failure. This seemed further substantiated when in 1859, Charles Darwin explained biological evolution as consequent to "survival only of the fittest."

With two of their scientist-savants demonstrating the inherent inadequacy of life support and survival only for the fittest, the masters of world commerce said, "We are obviously the fittest, since we are the sovereigns of the world's seas." On the other hand, Karl Marx in England discovering and agreeing with both Malthus' and Darwin's findings said, "The workers are obviously the fittest, for they know how to handle the tools and nurture the seeds—wherefore the rich are parasites."

These two viewpoints became the polar ideologies of the last century and a half. Each ideology as yet says, "You may not like our system, but we have the fairest and most logical way of coping with fundamental inadequacy." Consequently, the great nations of the Earth girding for Armageddon combinedly appropriate each year an average of $200 billion for military purposes.

As a World War One, regular U.S. Navy commissioned officer of the line, I began to question the validity of the Malthusian assumption. I realized that I was experiencing an utterly new kind of technology in the airplane, radio, etc., and that humanity was entering a new era. Refrigeration was adopted by the Navy a quarter century before it was used by private households on the land. Unaware of hermetic canning to come, Malthus assumed that surplus foods grown in one place would rot before reaching other places. He was wrong. He also misassumed that to get a message across the Atlantic would take a multihundred-ton ship at least three weeks. He didn't know that a few hundred pounds of electromagnetic apparatus would provide direct voice conversation around the world in split seconds.

In the naval strategy of World War One, it was assumed that when the grand fleets of the incumbent world sovereign and its challenger came into contact, it would be disclosed in the first or second salvo which would rule the world for the next 25 years, that being the minimum length of time it then took to produce a new and superior generation of war-making technology. The design philosophy of naval strategy is governed by (a) Archimedes' law of displacement, which shows that two ships of the same geometrical dimensions have the same weight limit of floatability—the ship plus its equipment, plus its supplies, plus its crew and passengers; and (b) how to design a successfully sea-keeping and swiftly maneuvering warship of a given tonnage in such a manner as to be able to deliver a greater blow at greater distance in less time with less effort than the enemy's ship of the same tonnage.

(Continued on page 107)

The Group

By STEVE BRODY
English Teacher, Eastchester (New York) Senior High School.

One year I inherited a maximum security class of 15 who had an infamous reputation for terminating teachers' careers. Among the guidance people, they were referred to in awed tones as The Group.

Their leader was John Bonime, a hard-core academophobe. Built like a linebacker, he had a hula dancer tattooed above each of his wrists, lending him the distinction of possessing the only x-rated forearms in the country.

The Group considered that grammar, spelling, and vocabulary were tools of the oppressor. Only in the realm of literature was I able to strike a responsive chord by judicious selection of material—*In Cold Blood, Bonnie and Clyde, The Boston Strangler.*

However, I wanted desperately to broaden The Group's intellectual horizons by introducing them to bloodshed on a classical plane. So I decided to experiment with *Macbeth,* despite admonitions from Dean Zubak in Guidance that The Group would rebel at Shakespeare.

Aware of the influence John had on his peers, I called him in, hoping to sell him on the idea. At mention of Shakespeare, the hula dancers on his forearms twitched violently. "C'mon, Chief," he said, "you can't be serious."

"I'm dead serious, John," I countered. "This may be your last chance at classical enrichment. Besides, er, Dean Zubak is convinced that the project will never get off the ground."

"He is, eh?" John slammed a fist into his palm. "What's this Shakespeare bit about, anyway?"

I proceeded to outline the tale of *Macbeth.* When I described the three witches, John said he knew three girls for the parts already. At the murder of King Duncan, his interest heightened, and by the time I got to the scene with Banquo's ghost, he was ecstatic.

"When do we start, Chief?"

"Tomorrow."

"Great. I'll break the news to the kids." He rose to leave. "One more thing, Chief. Who gets to play Big Mac?"

"Why you, John. It never occurred to me that anyone but you would play the part."

He drew himself erect and strode regally from the room.

Next day, he announced the project to The Group and filled them in on some highlights.

"This guy Macbeth is quick with the blade," John began, "but he don't go around looking for trouble 'til he meets up with these weirdos who tell him he's gonna be king. When he informs Lady Mac what the weirdos said, she starts getting ideas, thinking Big Mac oughta be the number-one kid. So he knocks off the king, then lets out a contract on his old buddy Banquo.

"When Banquo comes back to haunt Big Mac, he starts to crack up. Lady Mac goes daffy, too, and begins yakking in her sleep. Finally, this character Macduff shows up and puts Big Mac in his place."

The Group sat entranced at John's narrative but soon came alive. Susie Combs, who claimed she practically walked in her sleep during first period anyway, volunteered to play Lady Macbeth. Lou Wool, awed by mention of ghosts, asked to do Banquo. Even the lesser players warmed to their roles. The soldiers insisted on advancing behind their desks as Birnam Wood marched toward Dunsinane.

Dean Zubak was invited to the dramatization. He was so impressed that he went forthwith to the principal, Mr. Ryan, and suggested that The Group perform for the entire student body. Mr. Ryan approved the plan, and The Group began rehearsing in earnest.

An air of skepticism pervaded the student body as they filed into the auditorium on the specified day. An early scene with John Bonime and the witches was greeted with catcalls and guffaws. John handled the situation skillfully in an aside: "Come what come may, Time and the hour runs through the roughest day." Then he snarled, "And it'll be a rough day for you creeps out there if you keep acting up."

The rest of the play went without incident. At the final curtain, The Group received a standing ovation.

John spotted me in the wings and grabbed me by the arm. "Let's do another Shakespeare."

"Fine," I said. "Which one?"

John struck a classical pose. "To be or not to be," he began, "whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer the slings and arrows. . . ." □

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City/Suburban School Desegregation

The Supreme Court Speaks Out

Ruling in the Detroit school merger case on July 25, 1974, the U.S. Supreme Court set forth guidelines for determining the circumstances under which a federal court may require the merging of suburban school districts for purposes of desegregation.

The Court, in a precedential 5-4 ruling, rejected lower court decisions requiring 53 white suburban districts surrounding Detroit to participate in desegregating Detroit's predominantly black inner-city schools. It did, however, indicate that when racially discriminatory acts of the state or local school districts have been a substantial cause of interdistrict segregation, an interdistrict remedy is appropriate. Justice Stewart, moreover, pointed out that in his view, an interdistrict remedy might be appropriate if it were shown that state officials had contributed to separation of the races between districts by racially discriminatory use of state housing or zoning laws.

The Stewart opinion is significant because presumably the four dissenting justices, who would have upheld the interdistrict remedy even in the Detroit case, would agree with Stewart's view. Stewart followed the reasoning NEA presented in its "friend of the court" brief.

Justices Marshall, Douglas, Brennan, and White dissented from the majority opinion, expressing their approval of the lower court's metropolitan remedy. Justice Marshall stated that the Court provides no remedy at all, "thereby guaranteeing that Negro children in Detroit will receive the same separate and inherently unequal education in the future as they have been unconstitutionally afforded in the past." He warned: "In the short run, it may seem to be the easier course to allow our great metropolitan areas to be divided up each into two cities—one white, the other black—but it is a course, I predict, our people will ultimately regret."

Justice Douglas stated: ". . . since Michigan by one device or another has over the years created black school districts and white school districts, the task of equity is to provide a unitary system for the affected area where, as here, the State washes its hands of its own creations."

The High Court did order Detroit to undo the effects of segregation in its schools and has sent the case, *Milliken* v. *Bradley*, back to the federal district court "for further proceedings consistent with this opinion, leading to prompt formulation of a decree directed to eliminating the segregation found to exist in Detroit city schools, a remedy which has been delayed since 1970."

The Detroit case has evoked mixed reactions. Antibusing groups and some school officials and parents were elated that the Court rejected busing suburban students into the inner city, while Detroit officials pointed out that some 185,000 black students will continue to be denied access to integrated schools and will continue to experience racial isolation under the Detroit-only desegregation plan. Civil rights leaders, concerned about the fate of black students in segregated city schools, were initially troubled by the ruling; now they plan to gather evidence to satisfy the standard laid down by the Supreme Court. In the meantime, they will press the district court to implement a Detroit-only busing plan.

In its brief, NEA listed types of evidence which presumably would warrant an interdistrict remedy under the court's ruling. NEA had urged the High Court to remand the cases to the trial court with directions to hear evidence on official policies and actions and their impact on interdistrict segregation. Any school district potentially affected by a city-suburb remedy, NEA argued, should be given a chance to be heard on the existence of constitutional violations.

Evidence of such violations, NEA suggested, may include, but are not limited to, restrictions on black residency in suburbs such as large-lot and single-family zoning, denials of zoning changes, placement of public housing in black areas, vetoes of low-income housing projects in white areas, and various other acts of housing discrimination.

In new school construction and renovation as well as assignments to schools in their segregated communities, the brief also notes, school boards may contribute to school segregation. As blacks move into formerly white residential areas, school boards, for example, may use a variety of techniques to maintain racial homogeneity, such as busing white students from fringe areas, altering feeder patterns and attendance boundaries, and creation of optional zones. Another official action practice which may preserve the racial identity of a school district is discrimination against black applicants for faculty positions and the hiring of only whites.

The Detroit case has been in litigation for more than four years. Parents of black Detroit students, supported by the NAACP, filed a federal court suit in 1970 seeking integration of Detroit's school system and charging Michigan state and local officials with denying their Fourteenth Amendment rights. After 41 days of trial, the district court concluded: "Government actions and inaction at all levels, federal, state, and local, have combined with those of

(Continued on page 49)

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School Desegregation

(Continued from page 47)

private organizations, such as loaning institutions and real estate associations and brokerage firms, to establish and to maintain the pattern of residential segregation throughout the Detroit metropolitan area." The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit later affirmed that city and state officials pursued discriminatory policies in Detroit, that the schools are segregated by law, and that the only effective method for desegregation is by means of an interdistrict plan involving the suburbs.

The late U.S. District Judge Stephen Roth and also the appeal court later called for a plan to transport students in Detroit and in 53 school districts in McComb, Oakland, and Wayne Counties, an area bordering Detroit. HEW reported in 1972 that of more than 207,500 black students in the metropolitan area, 95 percent were isolated in the three districts—Highland Park, Inkster, Detroit. Forty-four of the other 51 districts were 95 percent or more white.

Not affected by the Detroit ruling are numerous court-ordered plans for desegregation within city systems including San Francisco, Pasadena, Pontiac, and Denver. Denver's desegregation plan, for example, ordered by the district court last spring on remand from the U.S. Supreme Court following the High Court's first ruling in a school desegregation case concerning an area outside the South, calls for racial balance within the school system by means of redrawing boundaries, part-time pairing of classes, and short-distance busing. The Supreme Court noted in the Denver case that a dual school system can be encouraged and maintained by such practices as drawing attendance zones, establishing feeder patterns, and constructing and remodeling school facilities with the purpose and effect of confining black children to black schools, as well as by laws.

The Court laid down rules facilitating a districtwide remedy where there has been proof of *de jure* discrimination in one area of the district.

In Denver, the NEA and its Colorado affiliate, CEA, had urged the High Court to promulgate such rules. The result, as in Denver, is that a school district may be required to desegregate its "core" area ghetto schools which are segregated by means of a neighborhood school policy superimposed upon segregated residential patterns, if, in a transitional area, it has been purposefully engaging in acts or practices designed to segregate students in the schools.

The Denver plan stipulates that elementary schools have no less than 40 percent and no more than 70 percent white enrollment and that secondary schools have between 50 and 60 percent Anglo students. Schools with a large number of Mexican American students are to provide bilingual-bicultural programs.

Similarly, the Detroit ruling will not interfere with busing to achieve desegregation in cities in school districts which encompass both the city and the county, such as Charlotte, North Carolina; Nashville; and Las Vegas.

In April 1971, in *Swann* v. *Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education,* the High Court, in a major desegregation ruling, unanimously ordered cross-district busing and other remedies including pairing and redrawing school boundaries in order to desegregate a formerly dual system in an urban metropolitan area. In that situation, white and black students had remained in separate schools despite the merger of two previously separate school districts. Although the Court did not order any particular racial balance within schools, grades, or classrooms, it did hold that federal judges had the power to provide a variety of remedies to desegregate unconstitutionally segregated school systems.

The Court's ruling in the Detroit case will likely have a far-reaching influence on other Northern cities, such as Baltimore and Wilmington, where litigation has been initiated to merge urban and surrounding suburban school systems. In the Louisville, Kentucky, situation, for example, the Supreme Court reversed an appeal court's decision permitting merger of the schools through cross-district busing. Other cities in which such suburban merger law suits are pending include Indianapolis, Dayton, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Grand Rapids, Atlanta, Durham, and Hartford.

Metropolitan desegregation may present problems for educators and teacher associations in relation to negotiated agreements and other teacher-rights guarantees. In 1973, with NEA assistance, the Michigan Education Association expressed its views concerning implementation of Judge Roth's desegregation plan by becoming a party to the suit at the appeals court level and urging the district court to consider teacher and student rights issues.

Noting that the teachers of the area are the key to the success of any desegregation plan, MEA outlined the concerns and recommendations of educators that had previously been overlooked by the court. MEA's brief urged the court that where faculty reassignments were necessary, first priority should be given to voluntary reassignments, followed by reassignment in reverse order of seniority. MEA also asked the court to establish a mechanism to settle faculty grievances relating to such reassignments. The brief further called for a multiracial and multiethnic curriculum; controlled use of standardized tests, in-service training, uniform student disciplinary codes, and an affirmative action hiring plan for the metropolitan area stipulating that the percentage of minority faculty employed reflect the minority students in each local district.

In February 1974, NEA adopted School Desegregation Guidelines for Local and State Education Associations. These guidelines [available from NEA Teacher Rights] encourage local associations faced with school district mergers to participate in desegregation suits to ensure protection of teacher rights and also to ensure that the association has a voice in judicial decisions affecting staff.

—Betty E. Sinowitz, *special assistant, Du Shane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights.*

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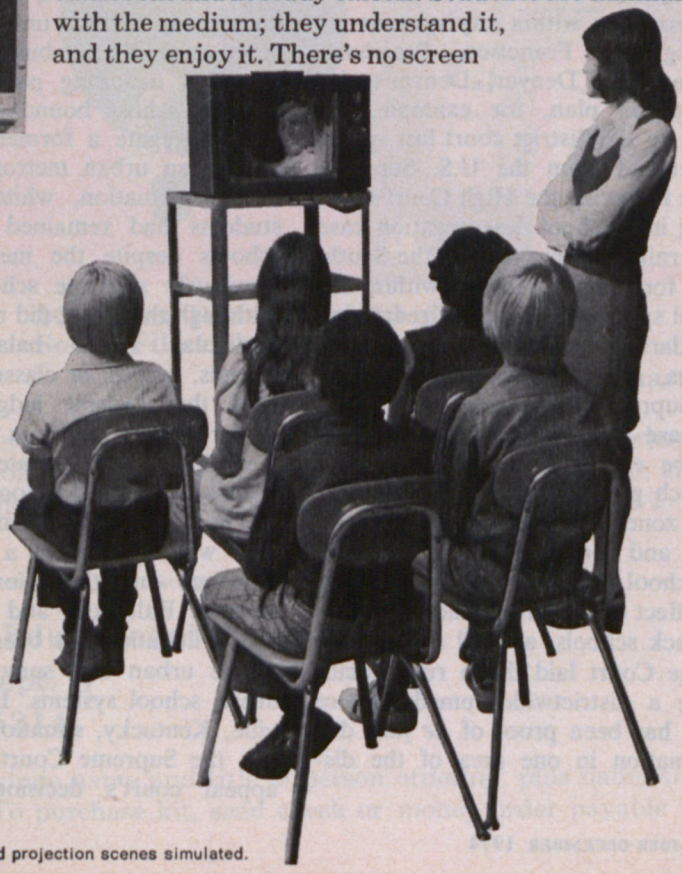

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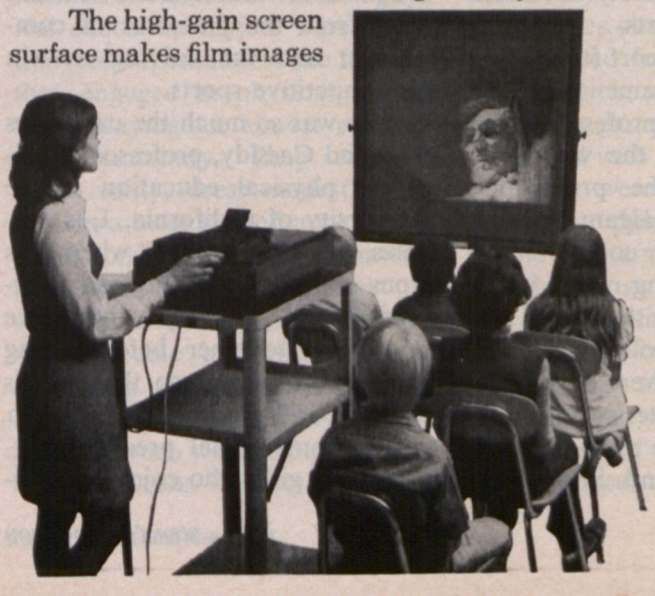

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 32

The time has come for improved sports programs for girls.

By MARJORIE BLAUFARB
Managing Editor, Update,
Newspaper of the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

Although sex discrimination has been widespread in many areas of public school education, in no area has it been so blatant as in athletics. Until recently, the education hierarchy from top to bottom has agreed that exposure to competitive athletics was good for boys but morally and physically bad for girls. Why? On what has this strange dichotomy been based?

Primarily on myth, it now appears, because, until the last few years, there has been little or no objective, documented research. Even now, there is still very little, considering the greatly increased interest in girls' sports.

Much of the support for the traditional posture came from the physical education profession itself and, indeed, from the women in the profession. The profession's attitude was an amalgam of many elements. First, of course, it reflected the prevailing mores in the community. During the period that high school and collegiate sports for boys and men were developing to their present state, social thinking put women into the home, into nurturant roles, and into places where they could be protected. Along with everything else, they were to be protected from the rough and tumble of boisterous play, from the pressures of competition and the striving to win of competitive sports.

This was so much the case, says Rosalind Cassidy, professor emeritus of physical education at the University of California, Los Angeles, that in the 1920's when girls from colleges in California gathered for a "play day," they were scrambled together before being divided into teams so that it was impossible for one college to win.

The same social pressures dictated that girls who enjoyed physi-

Equal Opportunity for Girls in Athletics

cal activity were tomboys, an undesirable role they were expected to outgrow by the time they reached adolescence. Women physical education majors were taught to overcompensate for the fact that they engaged in physical activity by displaying an almost exaggerated femininity. They were to speak softly, dress modestly, and present a most refined appearance.

Misconceptions about anatomy and physiology and about the strength and endurance females were capable of developing and displaying also played their part in fostering the idea that girls and young women were to be protected from vigorous activity. Fifty or more years ago, girls played quarter-court basketball, because they were thought unable to sustain the effort for even half-court play. Later rules changes, however, daringly called for half-court basketball for girls, and now they play a full-court game, with a five-person team and with no visible ill effects.

There were fears that young women's childbearing functions would be harmed if they engaged in athletics or undertook a rigorous conditioning program similar to that approved for even young boys. It was also feared that such conditioning would make girls develop bulging muscles and a masculine appearance.

The fears regarding harm to childbearing functions appear to be groundless, since the uterus and ovaries have been placed in a well-protected place in the female anatomy. One would image that the males, whose genitalia have been placed in a much more exposed position, are the ones to be wary.

Researchers doing studies on women in sports have helped dispel the notion that girls and women need special protection when engaging in sports. During the convention of the American Society for Testing and Materials in June 1974, a symposium, "Women in Sport—A Focus on the Injury Problem," dealt with some of these

myths. Dorothy V. Harris, director, Center for Women and Sport, the Pennsylvania State University at University Park, and Thomas E. Shaffer, M.D., University Health Services, the Ohio State University at Columbus, agreed that their research and observation lead them to conclude that the conditioning necessary for high level sports performance is not injurious to young women. Furthermore, male hormones, not vigorous physical activity, are what produce big bones and a masculine appearance. Female hormones dictate that young women are more rounded and have smaller bones than men, whether or not they engage in a vigorous conditioning program.

With respect to the injury problem, proper training, conditioning, care, and supervision are necessary, but Dr. Harris, Dr. Shaffer, and others agreed that young women need not be muffled up in heavy, padded clothing while engaged in sports. Nature gives them good protection, and additional padding should be considered carefully and used sparingly.

Dr. Shaffer said that the Ohio State University Medical Service had kept a tabulation of injuries reported by women athletes during the school year and that gymnasts reported the highest incidence of injury—more injuries than those who participated in what would appear to be rougher activities, such as field hockey or soccer.

In a paper presented at the national convention of the American Alliance [formerly Association] for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER) in April 1974, Allan J. Ryan, M.D., stated that there is no evidence that sports in and of themselves invoke any significant changes in the menstrual cycle, either favorable or unfavorable, in most women.

Discussion of the evils of competitive athletics and of the undesirability of competition for girls appears to be futile right now because Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibits persons from being excluded from educational programs and activities by reason of sex. So girls and young women must now have the opportunity to participate in school sports programs and to take part at the highly skilled competitive level if they wish to do so. And many of them do.

Since the regulation to effectuate Title IX, which was proposed earlier this year, calls for all curriculum offerings, including physical education, to be coeducational, separation of boys' and girls' physical education programs will have to cease. The requirement that physical education classes be coeducational is likely to be the aspect of Title IX that will be hardest for physical educators to adjust to. An administrative pattern that called for a boys' side and a girls' side for physical education classes, commencing in middle school or junior high, has been an article of faith with a majority of the profession.

But so many changes have already been made, judging from what I have seen and heard in school systems from California to Rhode Island, that Title IX will only accelerate changes that have already begun.

It is difficult to consider women in athletics in public schools apart from the whole picture of athletics and physical education. Although obviously not the same, the two areas are interdependent, and many of the same personnel are involved.

Elementary physical education has made great advances in the past decade. Starting early, children are being taught to be comfortable with their bodies—to be agile and dexterous. Activities for even the youngest child teach good eye-hand coordination, sure-handedness, and sure-footedness. Recent research, which has included the examination of slides of athletes in action in a variety of sports, has demonstrated that some basic movements carry over into all sports. Now we shall hope to see this knowledge put to use as both girls and boys are taught to be athletes—not just boys, as was formerly the case.

It will no longer be possible to exclude girls from some games and activities to which boys are exposed at the fifth grade on the grounds that the activities are too vigorous. Educators must begin to recognize that if such activities are too rough for girls, they are probably too rough for all children.

A position statement issued by the AAHPER Elementary School Physical Education Commission in 1970 recognized that competition in the elementary school is a "vital and forceful educational tool." But the same statement also recognized that "to be beneficial, competition must be success-oriented for all children and relevant to the school program." Implementation of the Title IX regulation will almost certainly expose elementary schoolgirls to more coeducational competition in the school setting.

An article in the February 1974 issue of the *Journal of Health, Physical Education, Recreation* reports on a survey of interschool and intramural sports for girls and boys in middle schools and junior high schools. The writers state: "As a whole, the girls' programs included more variety in activities and emphasized the social rather than the competitive aspect of the sport." This comment reinforces a theory I have that competitive sports have not been introduced for fifth to seventh grade girls because teachers had an unconscious prejudice against exposing girls to situations where they learned to be aggressive, rather than because they feared that the girls would be hurt in such rigorous sports.

In many areas of the country, high school girls now have opportunities to play in up to eight or 10 sports at the varsity level. Generally, competitive play is organized through the high school activities associations, and there is little coeducational competition so far. But in certain sports, schedules are arranged so that teams of both sexes travel together and play simultaneously, alternately, or one after the other. This is most frequently the case in track and field meets, swimming meets, and tennis and golf tournaments.

The regulation to effectuate Title IX allows discretion as to whether teams are coeducational or not. Since only the exceptional girl could make it on a boys' team, the majority of systems will probably continue single-sex teams. The idea is to provide opportunities for a maximum number of youngsters to participate, and the single-sex team seems best for that purpose.

In the Houston School District, girls are involved in six competitive sports locally; four, on a statewide basis. In response to a survey, parents gave overwhelming approval to girls' participation in a competitive athletic program. Participation by students is enthusiastic, and although no large sums of money are available, the school board is constantly increasing funds available for girls' sports. Boys' sports have not suffered, according to some observers.

Several school districts in northeast Ohio have a long-standing pattern of varsity sports for girls. They participate in eight or even 10 sports with apparent community approval. As these programs have developed with local support, there has been no outcry that the girls' program was eclipsing the boys' sports activities.

Iowa has had a girls' athletic league for more than 50 years. Wayne Cooley, the executive director of this league, says that girls have a better chance for good competition with Iowa's pattern of two leagues, one for girls and one for boys. For the most part, the same gate fees are charged for girls' and boys' events, although when admission prices have been increased, those for girls' events have been increased before those for boys' events. Television coverage and television fees for girls' events are more than double those for boys'.

Girls' and boys' teams are often scheduled to play at the same place on the same day so that they may travel together. The team that is having a winning season gets the choice place on the program, so the boys may lead off in some years and the girls, in other years.

Cooley believes that while less money is being made on boys' sports now, properly administered girls' sports can in fact be a new form of revenue. Total annual revenues for the program sponsored by the Iowa Girls High School Athletic Union doubled between 1969 and 1974.

Administrators faced by requests to upgrade the high school girls' sports program have most often offered lack of funds as an excuse for not doing so. Since funding for athletic programs for boys in public schools varies, no panacea exists to solve the financial problems related to a good girls' program.

One big city director claims that upgrading programs for girls has helped with the funding for the boys' programs in his district. Others from smaller districts say that they have had to rework their budgets, bring out old uniforms, and make all kinds of economies in order to support an adequate girls' sports program. But they do it. And they are proud of their girl athletes at the high school level.

It seems obvious that the time has come for enlarged programs for girls' sports and that informed parents support them. □

At the 1974 NEA annual meeting in Chicago, delegates to the Representative Assembly passed the following resolution:

The National Education Association believes that, at all educational levels, female and male students must have equal opportunity to participate in athletic programs.

The Association urges that athletic funds for facilities, equipment, and remuneration of staff must be equally allocated between female and male programs.

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Assignments will be made in the order applications and deposits are received. Limited number of single cabins at $50 additional; 6 deluxe cabins available at an additional $50 per person. All meals included. The price of XC-1 includes a day in port at San Juan, using the ship as your hotel; the XC-2 is designed for the person wishing to spend Christmas at home before vacationing.

About the ship: Made her maiden voyage April 5, 1967; 346 ft. in length, 7 decks, 5,200 gross tons. Fitted with latest Denny Brown stabilizing equipment and air-conditioned throughout. The capacity is 340 passengers but we'll carry only 275 per cruise. Shore excursions will be available in each port at nominal rates.

The *MTS Jason* is registered in Greece and meets the latest international S.O.L.A.S. requirements as well as the 1966 I.M.C.O. recommendations for fire safety at sea.

IT4PA1DCGK
IT4PA1DCGL

IT4EA1XC1
IT4EA1XC2

***Deck the Halls (XDH).** Dec. 22-30, 1974. $478. from New York City. Zurich is base for this Swiss culture tour, which, in addition to regular features, includes Continental breakfast daily, 2 dinners.

***String of Pearls—Costa del Sol, Spain (XSP).** Dec. 22-31, 1974. $398. from New York. Vacation on the pearly sands of the Mediterranean; live in a spacious apartment hotel.

***Merry Christmas from Madeira (XMM).** Dec. 22-30, 1974. $499. from New York City. In addition to Funchal, Madeira, visit pastelic Lisbon from Dec. 27 until your return.

***Snow Slopes of LaPlagne (XLP).** Dec. 22-30, 1974. $441. from New York City. Ski in the French Alps ninety miles from cosmopolitan Geneva or take excursions on your own.

***London at Yuletide (XLY).** Dec. 22-31, 1974. $498. from New York. Included will be tickets to performances at Old Vic, Savoy, and Strand theatres.

***Christmas Can-Can (XCC).** Dec. 22-31, 1974. $498. from New York City. What could this be but Paris? A half-day sightseeing tour and two festive dinners are also included.

***Russian Winter Festival (XRF).** 12/22-31/74. $729 from New York. $760 from Washington, D.C. A trip to Russia during the winter is a fascinating and unique experience—a perfect time for visiting museums and attending theatres, the ballet and concerts.

A warm coat and warm boots are all you need to brave a Russian winter. This trip includes Moscow and Leningrad, using first-class accommodations with private bath. In addition to regular, scheduled sightseeing, your trip includes three theatre performances; three meals daily, including dinner at Moscow's renowned Arbat restaurant; and a troika ride. Some free time will be allowed to enjoy the great museums at leisure. Single supplement: $45.00

Hawaiian Kalikimaka (XH-1). 12/24-31/74. Price, $439. plus 10% tax and service from Chicago, Dallas, Denver. $479. plus 10% tax and service from Atlanta, Cleveland, Detroit, Pittsburgh. $489. plus 10% tax and service from Baltimore, Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Richmond.

Features included in above tour prices:

- Roundtrip transportation via United Air Lines jet.
- Six nights at either the Outrigger East, Outrigger West, or Coral Reef, in Honolulu.
- Traditional flower lei greeting on arrival.
- Roundtrip transfers.
- Baggage tips and porterage for one piece of luggage.
- Sightseeing tour of Honolulu.
- Services of local escort.
- Get-acquainted briefing party.
- No regimentation.

***Rendezvous in Rio (RBX).** December 24, 1974-January 1, 1975. $349. plus 10% tax and service from New York. Roundtrip jet transportation via Trans International Airlines; 7 nights at The Guanabara Palace (economy class hotel – airconditioned rooms with private bath); transfers; baggage handling; Brazilian breakfast daily, one Brazilian beef dinner at a well-known "Churrascaria"; two half-day motorcoach sightseeing tours, which include Sugarloaf Mountain and Corcovado, the Botanical Gardens, Flamengo Park, the National Museum of Fine Arts, Itamaraty Palace, the Opera House, the beaches of Copacabana and Ipanema; two-hour cruise in Guanabara Bay; a visit to a gemcutting workshop; shopping discount at Mesbla S/A, Rio's most prestigious department store; map and guide of Rio; all U.S. and Brazilian departure taxes.

CHRISTMAS IN THE HOLY LAND *(XHL)

Dec. 21-30, 1974. Price: $585 + 10% tax/service from New York City. Air/land breakdown: Air $326; Land $317.50 including tax/service charges.

We are pleased to present this exciting and rich holiday tour at a budget price. Your trip will include 2 nights in Amman, 4 in Jerusalem, and 2 in Tiberias. Visit Jordan's magnificent ruins of Jerash. Cross the River Jordan to Jerusalem. Explorations include Pilate's Judgement Hall, the Via Dolorosa marking the 14 Stations of the Cross; the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, Mt. Calvary, and the 7th century Dome of the Rock. Visit the Mount of Olives, Garden of Gethsemane, and the Church of All Nations. Drive through the Shepherd's Fields to Rachel's Tomb and Bethlehem; see the Church of the Nativity and the Milk Grotto. The procession and Midnight Mass on Dec. 24 will be a highlight. In New Jerusalem drive past the Knesset (Parliament) to Ein Karem, birthplace of John the Baptist. Visit Mt. Herzl, Mt. Zion, King David's Tomb, and the Room of the Last Supper. On a three-day excursion to Galilee, visit Jacob's Well where Jesus spoke to the Samaritan women, Samaria, and Jenin; in Nazareth see Joseph's carpentry shop and the synagogue where Jesus taught; Cana, site of the First Miracle; and the Sea of Galilee. Return to Amman Airport for jet return to New York. *Accommodations:* Twin basis in first-class hotels with private bath. *Meals:* Continental breakfast and dinner in Jerusalem and Tiberias; no meals in Amman. *Transportation:* Via ALIA Royal Jordanian Airlines B-707 jet, affinity charter basis, with a capacity of 180 seats, subject to increase on a prorata basis should the number of participants be less than 180.

TRANSPORTATION

NOTE: Round-trip transportation, without an accompanying tour, is available only on the flights described above. Transportation to all other points is on a tour-inclusive basis, i.e. can be taken only in conjunction with the land tour.

*TO/P	December 22/31, 1974	New York/Paris-Paris/New York	$291
*TO/L	December 22/31, 1974	New York/London-London/New York	$285
*TO/Z	December 22/30, 1974	New York/Zurich-Zurich/New York	$299
*TO/LI	December 22/30, 1974	New York/Lisbon-Lisbon/New York	$284
*TO/M	December 22/31, 1974	New York/Malaga-Malaga/New York	$285

GENERAL INFORMATION

• NEA membership of at least six months duration is required for tour/flights listed with an asterisk. Members of the immediate family (but limited to spouse, dependent children, and parents residing in the member's household) are also eligible. Other friends and relatives (non-members) may participate in tours not marked with an asterisk. Prices are per person, based on double occupancy, and are subject to change. Airfares for transportation-only flights are those in effect as of 8/1/74 and are subject to change on Nov. 1, 1974. Single accommodations (if available) at additional cost. There is a $15 cancellation fee per person on all tours/flights cancelled, regardless of reason. Beyond this, regulations governing refunds of deposits and/or payments as a result of cancellation vary with the individual tour or flight. Prices, dates, and itineraries shown on these pages supersede all previous announcements and publications pertaining to the NEA 1974 Christmas tour program.

APPLICATION & REQUEST FOR INFORMATION

To reserve space on a tour/flight, return this coupon with $100 deposit per person to:

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Please reserve _____ **spaces on** _____ **departing on** _____

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Age _____ **(for rooming purposes only)**

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WHAT IS INCLUDED IN TOUR PRICES: All tours capsulized above (with the exception of the Hawaii and Rio tours) provide first-class hotel accommodations and all tours include round-trip transportation from point of origin to point of return. The Hawaii and Rio tours provide comfortable, economy-class hotels. Additionally, the price for each tour includes the services of an escort, tips, and baggage handling of one suitcase per person. Meals and sightseeing tours vary with each tour. A fuller description of each of the tours in the capsule will be sent upon request.

CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 6

An Interview with Father Theodore M. Hesburgh on

Higher Education in Transition

A SPECIAL FEATURE ON POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION

By HAROLD G. SHANE
University Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

In the years following World War II, and particularly in the post-Sputnik era, U.S. universities experienced a golden age. Fueled by federal and foundation funds, research projects flourished. Even the largest schools doubled their enrollments.

Then, in a few years, a chill set in. By the late 1960's, student unrest had become almost legendary, and tension was widespread. Financial support ebbed away. The counterculture established a worship of personal freedom and an almost romantic rejection of academic discipline.

Although most basic issues remain unresolved today, the mid-1970's seem, nevertheless, to be a period of transition from confrontations to careers. The distinguished president of the University of Notre Dame examines with us the future of postsecondary education in the United States culture.

Q. Father Hesburgh, what important sign of change do you see on the campuses of United States universities?

A. The first one, of course, is that the students are much quieter than they were six or seven years ago. I think we all agree that during the sixties we experienced a monumental campus revolution—one in which everything was questioned. We encountered a great deal of violence.

The amazing thing is that student unrest burst upon us with the speed of summer lightning and now has passed almost as quickly. A lot of people have tried to explain these dynamic changes. I suspect part of the explanation is the fact that choice jobs have become more difficult to obtain. Another reason, I suspect, is that our more insightful young radicals realized that it was impossible to have a career if one's only education consisted of planning a revolution.

For whatever reason, I think that today's students are more interested in an education. They're studying much harder; they're reading more. On the negative side, I must add, some of our young people are not as concerned about national and world issues as they were in the late 1960's.

Q. In view of the fact that the world and the campus have changed greatly since 1960, do you feel that professors have changed enough? Do they perform their jobs better? Are they more insightful?

A. Faculty members changed very perceptibly during and right after the "campus revolution." Before the era of student unrest, our youth were quite right in saying that teaching was taking a back seat. A number of faculty members weren't spending enough time with their students. Students in some of the universities with the most prestigious faculties complained that many distinguished staff members were in India or in Latin America or in Australia. They weren't on campus often enough to meet with the classes they were listed in the bulletin as teaching.

Although academic absenteeism has been a sore spot, I have no question whatsoever about the competence of most of the teachers in our universities. A valuable fallout of the student revolution is that, on the whole, faculty today are taking their teaching more seriously and are doing a distinctly better job than they were when the revolution began.

Q. Are you saying then that professors' attitudes *and* their academic skills have improved?

A. That's right. Let me say that I decided to do some teaching last year, and I'm glad I did!

Q. Do you think today's universities are generally adequate to meet tomorrow's needs?

A. I would say *yes* to your question, Dr. Shane. I base my answer on what I learned during the six years I spent on the Carnegie Commission [on Higher Education] studying the present and future of American higher education. As a result of this experience, I know that we have an extremely wide variety of types of postsecondary education in America. We have many options that should serve to help us confront successfully the problems of education four to 10 years from now. Perhaps the biggest problem will be that of matching students with the universities that will be best for them.

Q. What new roles or new social functions, if any, do you envision for the university?

A. I definitely believe the universities should concentrate on education more than on anything else. One of the reasons for the campus revolution may have been that we were trying to do too much. As you recall, from the early beginning of higher education—with the founding of Harvard in 1636—until about the middle of the last century, universities were mainly concerned with teaching. Then, using the German university as our model, we became enamored with research. This was especially true first in the physical sciences and, ultimately, in virtually everything. In a sense, Oxford University's kind of teaching and the research approach of German universities were melded into the American university. Then, particularly after World War II, service came into the picture as a third function.

Q. What is your appraisal of the service function now and in the future?

A. I think with respect to service that many of us went overboard. The university attempted too many things. We just couldn't deliver on all the things that we promised. We couldn't solve all of the world's problems!

As a matter of fact, when the university got into serious difficulties in the mid-60's, we sometimes couldn't even solve our own campus problems. Today you'll find universities a little more modest with respect to service! I think they will continue to focus more on teaching and research. Of course, I think you will find a great deal of service given by many faculty people within the university itself. They serve within their departments, and most of them have numerous committee functions connected with life in the university.

Whenever possible, I believe that service should begin at home. I believe further that the best "service" we can provide is educating well the students who come to us.

Q. That's a very interesting observation. I remember Robert Hutchins' saying back in the 1950's that he felt that teaching—not research or professional training—was the main function of the liberal arts college. President Pusey of Harvard, on the other hand, remarked that the value of a university is measured "by the number and quality of its advanced scholars." Do you see any rule-of-thumb balance among service, teaching, and research that should characterize the work of a faculty member?

A. I'd say that the most important thing most faculty members can do is teach. However, to teach well, especially in the realm of graduate studies, one must constantly keep up with appropriate expanding fields of knowledge. While it's unreasonable to expect all faculty members to push forward the frontiers of knowledge in their field, all university professors have to be acquainted with developments in their field of knowledge in order to be vital teachers. Teaching and a knowledge of research are both essential.

Q. In your opinion, should the nature of research vary from discipline to discipline?

A. A different kind of research goes with each discipline. In general I am against the idea that everybody must do research the way, say, an experimental physicist goes about it.

Q. Am I correct in thinking that you would support for academic promotions those persons who are competent teachers or who provide useful service even though they do little if any major research?

A. That's right.

Q. Now I'd like to change our focus and ask your opinion of the community or junior college. Two-year colleges have a long history and proud traditions, but only in the last 15 or 20 years have they been such a widespread educational phenomenon. What do you see as their functions, strengths, and possible shortcomings?

A. I think they have several functions, but one of the most important is that they serve for many of our youth as a bridge between high school and the four-year university. Many youngsters who for various reasons might be unable to attend the university are able

to go to a community college or a junior college in their own locality. Their numbers are increasing, and I would say that about a third of all undergraduates today are in community or junior colleges.

Q. Your Carnegie Commission activities took you around the United States, and I know you looked at a lot of community colleges. What are some of the impressions you acquired through your visits?

A. I was much impressed by the fact that for many young people this was the only kind of higher education they would get. I also felt that the programs were vocationally important. Students were preparing to be nurses or learning how to be typists or secretaries, or they were learning all kinds of mechanical arts and skills. I found that for many others, the community college provides a means of eventual entry to the university.

To sum up, I see the two-year program performing two functions: one is providing an advanced technical education; the other is the bridge function. On the Carnegie Commission we felt that there ought to be a specialized two-year degree, such as the Associate of Arts, as distinguished from a four-year Bachelor of Arts degree even in schools that give the four-year degree. For some students it would provide a normal stopping point.

Q. With respect to the four-year program, Father Hesburgh, would you say that there is something of value for most people in a baccalaureate degree or is the cost of a liberal arts degree more than its value to a majority of our secondary school graduates?

A. I must declare myself a classicist as I respond to this one! I believe that every human being should have some form of a liberal education in the broadest sense of the word *liberal.* What I mean is that I think everyone has to know something about language, words, and literature in order to enjoy reading books—an enjoyment which is increasingly difficult to instill in youngsters today because they're exposed to so many TV types of education.

When I was a boy, I read voraciously and I still do. It remains one of my great joys, and it's also the main way I continue my education over the years.

Q. Do you think that book lovers may be a dying breed?

A. Not quite! But I do suspect that many young people today aren't going to share my joy in reading because they simply don't read enough. When visiting in some people's homes today, I'm amazed to note how few books there are.

Q. Do you think that language and literature should be the primary focus of a liberal education?

A. In addition to language and literature, I think everybody also ought to know something about history in order to get some sense of where humans have been and where the heights of heroism can lead and have led humankind. The young also need to be aware of the depths that humans can sink to if they flounder into a depraved kind of life. I think history puts our present lives in perspective and helps us to orient ourselves within our present human situation.

Furthermore, in an age of science and technology, it would be ridiculous for youngsters not to have the liberalizing experience gained from a substantial exposure to mathematics, science, and technology.

Humankind today also needs to have some sense of how the scientific mind works and of the parameters within which it operates. I must go beyond this point and add that—at least in a college or university context—everybody should have a measure of philosophy so that they are confronted with ultimate questions about life and death, war and peace, virtue and vice, love and hate. Everybody faces certain universal questions. It would be a shame to go through life without ever really contemplating the meanings of such questions as Why am I here? Where am I going? How do I get there?

Q. In many schools, especially in our large public-supported institutions, I think we probably have had an increase in the diversity of students who are enrolled. In other words, there is less of an elite population in today's university. Do you feel that the nature and content of the kind of liberal arts instruction you're speaking of should be changed to match the mass influx of students?

A. Let me rephrase what I said before. There is a basic kind of preparation for effective living that I call liberal education. I would describe it as the process of opening up a person's mind and heart, of providing new vistas, and of giving individuals a chance to expand as humans in a way that one doesn't always have time and maturity to do in high school. Our young men and women must have a chance to think, to evaluate, to fathom themselves, and to ponder some of life's meaningful questions. I think everyone should have that experience.

Q. But, Father, can we force or impose experiences in the hope that they will serve to liberalize the mind and free the spirit of young learners?

A. Certainly everyone doesn't seek such experiences, and many youngsters will say they're a waste of time. To the extent that persons don't want that kind of a liberalizing education, there's not much you can do to force it down their throats. At the same time, I think it should be available to everyone in some context. This isn't an easy goal for us to reach, but it's a very

important one in today's world. I don't believe that an increase in the number of students enrolled necessarily invalidates my points, although perhaps we will need to approach our teaching tasks differently. But in general I would say, even though we went from a little over 2 million students in higher education in 1950 to nearly 8 million in 1970, that this tripling over a 20-year period was built on a solid base that took almost 300 years to build. The base, I think, will support the enlarged structure.

Q. Since the late 1960's, we've become more and more aware of the problems of resource depletion, food shortage, pollution, and so on. Do you see our global ecological problems creating changes in the nature of instructional content in higher education?

A. One of the beauties of a liberal education is that it permits you to move into almost any field and learn about it quickly because you've learned how to study, to read, to express yourself, and to ask the important questions. My own education—a liberal education with an emphasis on philosophy and theology—might seem very impractical. Yet today, in addition to my work at the university, I'm presiding over the Overseas Development Council, a very large endeavor that involves all the great questions you just spoke about.

If I hadn't been liberally educated, I couldn't just suddenly become geared to face all those questions and know how to operate within them. Furthermore, I have operated in an administrative capacity working with a large laboratory nearby and coping with scientific matters. Again, I spent 12 years on the National Science Board, something which I was not specifically prepared to do. One more example is provided by the first job I ever had, which was as chaplain in a federal reform school. How do you prepare yourself for that?

There is a basic kind of preparation for effective living that I call liberal education.

I'm saying that I think a genuinely liberal education is so broad and so all-encompassing that it can be applied in many different contexts.

Q. Your interest in fundamental human questions motivates me to ask you this: Do you see within the next decade any ways in which postsecondary education can contribute to resolving the value crisis through which the United States has been passing in recent years?

A. I would have to say offhand that it's much easier to exemplify values than to teach them directly. I've always felt that teachers have to exemplify in their own lives the kind of values they're trying to teach students.

For example, I think that by spending 15 years on the Civil Rights Commission I probably taught students on this campus more about the need to be concerned about human rights than I could by standing up and talking about it. Students could see me taking a stand as a Commission member on specific things I had studied at some length or that I had learned about in hearings. I think that because of what I was doing students were willing to accept what I had to say about the need to be concerned about important questions.

The same is true of honesty or justice. If students know you're doing something for world justice, you can pass from that into a discussion with them on that topic.

I believe the value dimension has been very much neglected in higher education in recent years. Consider the Watergate tragedy if you will. Almost everybody involved in that escapade was college-taught. Many of them were professional people who had spent seven years, not just four, in college. And yet many of those involved didn't ask the most simple question: Is what we're doing right or is it wrong? I think we would have to say that whoever was involved in their college education didn't really do their full job, although I have already admitted that teaching values is one of the most difficult tasks that teachers confront.

Q. Minority groups and persons in the women's movement have generated considerable pressure for greater representation of their membership on college faculties. What is your evaluation of this development?

A. It's a good development. Our faculties have been too monolithic, too overwhelmingly staffed by males. They have not really represented the full sweep of humanity or even the full sweep of human insights.

Sometimes one is accused of putting people on a faculty because they're women or because they represent minorities, not because they're competent. This need not be true. Everybody who goes on a faculty should be competent, of course, but there are many competent women and many competent minority people around. Perhaps at the moment there are not as many as one would wish, but we're finally doing something to increase opportunities that were

once limited by sex and race.

Q. What is your position with respect to the future nature and sources of funding for postsecondary education? What do you see as the scope and the amount of this kind of funding other than the traditional sources for private institutions such as Notre Dame or Northwestern?

A. The federal government is probably going to provide funds on a broader basis than in the past. This trend has been growing, of course, since World War II. We on the Carnegie Commission concluded that at least a third of the total higher education bill ought to come from the federal government, with maybe another third coming from the states and still another third, from the private sector, including gifts and tuition fees.

You realize of course, Professor Shane, that there's a great controversy going on now about how much public universities can charge. My own feeling is that they shouldn't charge so much that the poor and disadvantaged student is priced out of the market. On the other hand, some people are upset by the fact that well-to-do students who attend college in a public institution in their home state pay practically nothing for their education.

Some private institutions are going under today because they can't obtain enough money to cover their total costs. At Notre Dame, we try to have over half of our alumni contribute every year to the upkeep of the university. A figure of several million dollars annually is our goal, and this is very helpful. Contrary to what most people believe, we don't get any money at all from the Catholic church.

While we get money from individual Catholics, we also get money from Protestants and Jews —often quite large amounts. We also get from the government a considerable amount of money for research and for the support of disadvantaged students. Substantial monies continue to come from foundations, and we get considerable sums from businesses for special projects. I think it's this kind of mix that one has to work for in supporting private universities.

Now in state universities, I think most of the money has to come from public sources—largely the federal government and the state itself. Some funds should come from fees and tuition.

I believe many of the best state universities today are creating their own foundations in order to facilitate their search for private money from the great funding foundations across the land. But also they're trying to get some of their own alumni to give money for special projects—in fine arts, for example—that probably can't be funded that easily out of federal or state funds.

Q. Many young persons who graduate from our schools become physicians or dentists or enter some other profession. Their preparation probably requires a substantially larger amount of public monies or contributions to private schools than does the education of most citizens. Do you feel it would be equitable for, say, physicians to pay back to society a part of the added cost of their education? Presumably this could be done by repaying their school or through some form of taxation.

A. It seems to me that people who have been the beneficiaries of a lengthy, costly professional education ought to have an obligation, if and as they prosper, to make it possible for others to get that kind of education too. Yale has a tuition postponement program that bases repayment on the post-college incomes of individual borrowers. I think it's a good idea to require more from the high-income graduate.

Q. Now for a last question. What future do you foresee for United States collegiate institutions that are affiliated with or supported by religious denominations?

A. Reluctantly, I would have to say the prospects are not good for their survival if you look at their future from a financial point of view. Many of them are in serious difficulty today. Again you would have to distinguish between those schools that are supported by religious communities and denominational schools that have other sources of support.

I believe that it's important that church-affiliated schools do survive because they represent a segment of moral concern as well as a segment of educational concern in our society.

At the end of World War II, we had a balance of public and private institutions—enrollments were about 50-50 throughout the country. But with the enormous increase of facilities, students, and faculties in public institutions between 1950 and 1970, we went to an enrollment ratio of about 75 percent public and about 25 percent private. That proportionate loss doesn't bother me, but it would concern me if that 25 percent shrank to maybe 1 or 2 percent. I think there has to be a certain "critical mass" of students in independent schools in the total group.

In the educational spectrum of 1980, I'd like to see small liberal arts colleges, I'd like to see men's colleges and women's colleges if they are desired in certain areas, and I'd like to see public schools and private schools side by side. I'd like to see both religiously affiliated schools and nonreligiously affiliated public and private schools thriving.

In U.S. education today, there should be an institution for everyone, a place for everyone. If we really accomplish this, it will be because of the heterogeneity of American higher education, which gives it a very special character and value. □

Nontraditional Approaches

By **EWALD B. NYQUIST**
President, The University of the State of New York, and New York State Commissioner of Education.

My favorite topic for thought and discussion is the reform of education at all levels, elementary, secondary, and postsecondary. This reminds me of a fable by William Saroyan in which a husband plays the same note on the cello over and over and over. His wife asks him plaintively, "Why do you play the same note over and over again? Other cellists play different notes." To which her husband responds: "They play different notes because they are trying to find the right one. I've found mine."

Nontraditional studies in postsecondary education is a note that is sweeping the country, especially the notion commonly called the external degree. The final report of the Commission on Non-Traditional Study says that such study reflects an attitude that "puts the student first and the institution second, concentrates more on the former's need than the latter's convenience, encourages diversity of individual opportunity rather than uniform prescription, and de-emphasizes time, space, and even course requirements in favor of competence and, where applicable, performance."

As more than one person has observed, the external degree is really an old idea whose time has come. Or, as a few others have lamented, it is a bad idea whose time has come, and it is doomed to succeed.

My fear, however, is that the idea will founder in programs having only a surface validity. And then, of course, there is always the hazard of confronting two different types of faculty. The first is so open-minded that his or her brains fall out. Anything goes. The second is what I call an Inverted Micawber, someone who sits around waiting for something to turn down.

The time has come for changes in higher education that are more than cosmetic. And I would like to present here the rationale for nontraditional studies.

The biggest problem for education at all levels is to restore the confidence of the people in schools. Are we not strangers in paradox? The more good we do and the more students we educate, the more criticism we receive and the more unloving our critics become. This is Nyquist's Law of Inverse Reciprocity: Never leave any good turn unstoned.

In these days of liberated rhetoric, love seems to be the only really taboo four-letter word, and everybody seems to go to bed angry at night. If Moses came down from Mount Sinai today, the two tablets he would be carrying would be aspirin.

There is another aspect to this paradox. On the one hand, our society's belief in the value of education, as measured by many yardsticks, remains stronger than ever. The general belief persists that it is better to be informed than ignorant and that society's problems can best be solved through enlightened discourse. In short, education is a kind of manna for all seasons.

But, on the other hand, as Sidney Marland observed, the American public is becoming increasingly reluctant to contribute more dollars to education on the basis of faith alone. For example, he notes, less than half of the elementary and secondary school bond referendums gained approval in 1972, compared with nearly 80 percent in 1965.

There's no doubt that never have so many institutions felt the fiscal pain they do now. Education is no longer a money-splendored thing. Taxpayers are trying to find a cheaper way of making educational history, and among legislatures there is a mutiny of the bountiful. Fiscal fitness is the curriculum everywhere.

And yet, as Marland concludes, "It is not the loss of the revenues due to defeated referendums that is at issue here; rather it is the reasoning that appears to lie behind those defeats and behind those who repeat unexamined denunciations of higher education."

There are, of course, valid criticisms of our schools and colleges. We are not infallible, and one of our troubles is that we have oversold education, that we have too often raised expectations too high and promised too much. Having said this, however, I am far from satisfied that the public has acknowledged or even understands the impressive record of accomplishment that our schools and colleges have achieved, especially in the last 15 years.

I am convinced that education

is experiencing a financial dilemma and an educational one that are interrelated and could be expressed along these lines. Taxpayers have not asked us to run our schools and colleges on less dollars than in the past, but they have been resisting giving us more dollars. Of course, with rising costs, the same dollars buy less program so that, in effect, being asked to get along with what we have is being asked to do less.

I doubt that the public sees it quite that way, however. Rather, I think people are saying to us, "If all you can do is what you have been doing, I am willing to pay for that as I have in the past. But I am not convinced that I want to buy still more of what I have been getting. The extra dollars that you educators have been getting recently don't seem to be buying as much value as the dollars you used to build up our present system. If you cannot show me that I am getting more for my dollars, then I am not going to give you one nickel more."

What such an attitude suggests to me is this: We need to reform to get money, not to get money in order to reform. Lest I be misinterpreted, let me stress that *education needs more money now*, whether reform takes place or not. But my thesis is that while we need more money than we have been getting, we will not get as much as we want until reform becomes more uniform.

We have gone from a period of unprecedented growth for higher education during the 1960's into a time of financial retrenchment accompanied by deep uncertainty about the purposes of education. Unless we are certain about what we should be doing now and in the future and know how to go about effecting meaningful change, we will be reaching the point of marginal return on an increased investment in traditional education.

Toynbee has pointed out that rigid societies are dead or dying societies. And so it is with colleges and universities.

Striking out in new directions, and especially so when most institutions are faced with financial retrenchment, is not easy. Higher institutions, by nature, are conservative. They are reactive and contemplative rather than innovative and action-oriented. But higher education and many of its cherished academic customs and beliefs have undergone a process of public desanctification in recent years. Institutions can no longer proceed in an open-ended fashion toward an unlimited number of perceived traditional options.

All colleges and universities should be engaged in academic reform. One reason is that students coming out of U.S. high schools today are better informed and more sophisticated than those in any previous generation. They have started formal schooling at an earlier age, have spent more days in the classroom at each grade level, have taken more advanced high school courses, and have become more knowledgeable by virtue of such outside influences as television and travel.

Another reason is that increasingly sophisticated skills are needed for the new kinds of jobs that will be created in our knowledge-dependent society.

Unfortunately, our present educational structure does not reflect the changing learning needs of people and society. Rather, it is predicated on a number of misconceptions: that the school or college is the exclusive place of education; that youth is the only age of learning; that knowledge flows from the teacher; that education is properly measured by the accumulation of courses and credits; that education must be experienced in unbroken sequences of 12 to 16 years; that all college programs have to be of two or four years' duration; and that degrees and diplomas are the only indicators of talent and competence and the only instruments by which upward social and economic mobility may be acquired.

These misconceptions and others don't hold up under close scrutiny. As Bob Dylan's song title says, "The Times They Are A-Changin'!"

What is needed today is a more flexible and open system of education with increased opportunity for people to participate in any program at any level at which they are capable of performing and at their own pace. We need, too, more honorable forms of educational entry, exit, and reentry and more socially approved channels for interrupting and resuming education that will permit both young and older students to work in and out of an educational setting as their interests and circumstances dictate.

This is the basis for the creation of the external degree, which I see as one important part of the necessary new flexibility that is gaining growing support.

Thousands of people contribute in important ways to the life of the communities in which they live even though they do not have college degrees. Through native intelligence, hard work, and sacrifice, many have gained in knowledge and understanding, have developed and expanded their cultural and aesthetic horizons, and, thus, have become significant contributors to society. And yet, the social and economic advancement of these people has been thwarted in part by the emphasis that is put on the possession of credentials presumptively attesting to intellectual competence and the acquisition of skills. As long as we remain a strongly "credentialed" society, employers will not be disposed to hire people on the basis of what they know, but rather on the basis of their degrees and diplomas.

If attendance at a college is the

What is needed today is a more flexible and open system of postsecondary education. ►

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only road to these credentials, those who cannot or have not chosen to take this route but who have acquired knowledge and skills through other sources will be denied the recognition and advancement to which they are entitled. Such inequity should not be tolerated.

Once the traditional academic institutions see what can be accomplished through nontraditional study, the result will be more independent study on the campus, more accommodating transfer policies between different types of educational agencies, less indulgence in the narcissism of small differences, and less academic snobbishness about acceptance of credit for knowledge acquired unconventionally.

Increasingly, we will see four marked changes in postsecondary education:

1. Compensatory education that involves extra counseling, tutoring, and remedial instruction for those who seek a formal college education but who have deficiencies in their precollege instruction
2. A loosening up of the requirements that students finish their formal education in a lockstep prescribed calendar of two or four years
3. A recognition that there are other postsecondary roads to success and self-fulfillment besides formal collegiate institutions
4. Credentialing of individuals who do not attend traditional institutions of higher education.

My predictions are buttressed by reforms that have already begun in different parts of the country, with programs like the University of California's Extended University and the University of Oklahoma's Liberal Studies degrees.

Any institution which undertakes nontraditional studies, and especially those which involve external degrees, will encounter hazards. Stephen Bailey, a former member of the New York Board of Regents and now vice-president of the American Council on Education, sees "serpents at the bottom of this basket of shiny apples," even though he finds much promise in the idea of giving credit for knowledge acquired in academically unconventional ways. Mr. Bailey's four serpents are:

- The serpent of academic shoddiness, which includes both undue rigidity and undue limpness.
- The serpent of the garden path, which means that prospective students may mistakenly consider nontraditional studies an easy way to get a degree.
- The snake of fiscal naivetè, which means that some in the academic community think that higher education can be conducted more cheaply in nontraditional ways. This may or may not be the case.
- Finally, the serpent of believing erroneously that the technological means of learning and instruction will make nontraditional studies a cinch.

To Mr. Bailey's four serpents, I would add three hazards.

- The mistaken notion that being truly and validly innovative in making nontraditional departures is easy to plan and accomplish. The intellectual effort required is great, and the restraining forces of ancient academic customs are often formidable and frustrating.
- Planning and conducting any nontraditional venture in isolation from the rest of the traditional academic community probably carries with it the seeds of its own eventual destruction.
- The fallacious expectation that all nontraditional ventures will attract great numbers of clients. Some do, but most do not. □

Dr. Nyquist spoke at greater length on this topic at a conference sponsored by the Cleveland (Ohio) Commission of Higher Education last year.

Women and

By HELVI L. SIPILÄ
Assistant Secretary-General of the United Nations for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs.

The International Forum on the Role of Women in Population and Development, which took place in New York earlier this year, marked the first time in the history of the United Nations —or in any other intergovernmental organization—that women nominated by their government in 108 countries have come to the United Nations to consider subjects of crucial importance to the future of humankind. Hopefully, this historic event marked the beginning of an era of real partnership between men and women in the consideration of and decision making in international affairs.

Why have women been missing from previous meetings of this kind? In the past 30 years, great progress has been made in the implementation of the principles and purposes of the United Nations Charter in the field of equal rights and equal responsibilities of all individuals without distinction. The increase in the number of member states from 51 to 135; the use of six languages (English, French, Spanish, Chinese, Russian, and Arabic); and the cooperation of the various races within the UN show that the peoples of the world have taken a big step forward on their way toward universality and equal opportunities for all without distinction of race, language, or religion.

But the picture is different for another ground of distinction mentioned in the Charter—that of sex. In the last General Assembly, for example, there were only 180

women compared to 2,369 men delegates. The delegations of 55 countries had no women, and the delegations of 44 other countries had only one woman.

In considering why this situation exists, we must remember that 82 years ago no country recognized the right of all women to vote and that only 69 years ago no woman in any country could become a member of the national parliament. Most women have gained their political rights during the last two or three decades. The present generation of women are therefore still newcomers to political life at every level, but particularly at the international level. So that although there are now a great number of women involved in national politics, particularly in the fields where women's experience has been considered most valuable—education, social development, and social welfare—women's participation in international affairs is still very inadequate in all respects.

The Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, which was adopted unanimously by the General Assembly in 1967, expands on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by further elaborating matters of equality and discrimination between men and women. This Declaration is expected to become legally binding on those states which ratify the single Convention currently being drafted and, hopefully, to be finalized in a couple of years.

Lack of international standards is not, therefore, the cause of the discrimination that still exists because of lack of equality between men and women. The cause appears to be a lack of awareness of and, perhaps, interest in these questions, which are still too often dismissed as "women's issues" that lack real importance when national and international priorities are being set.

World affairs are still divided into those concerning women and those concerning human beings in general. Had it been otherwise, we might not be in the situation we are now in. If all the women of the world had been given education, employment opportunities, equal status within the family both in law and in fact, and more opportunities to participate equally with men in the activities, development, and decision making of their societies, we probably would not be faced today with all the problems relating to overpopulation.

There is no question but that the status and the opportunities available to women vary according to the stage of development of their country. For example, the highest percentage of women in the labor force or in school enrollment up to and including higher education are most likely to be found in so-called developed countries. The same thing is true with regard to participation in public office and functions as well as with regard to equal rights and obligations of both spouses in law and in fact.

There are, however, outstanding examples of what women can do in the so-called developing countries when they have the same opportunities as men. Indeed, women from those countries have often been among the most active contributors in world affairs.

The fact remains nonetheless that too few women in either the developed or the developing countries participate in formulating and implementing national, regional, or international policies relating to development and population.

It has been common knowledge for some time that birth rates are relatively low in the so-called developed part of the world, where women have, in general, better opportunities to play their full role in the development effort together with men. It has rarely been suggested, however, that the low birth rates might be at least partly due to the differences in the opportunities women have to undertake various roles and to participate fully in the life of their societies outside their roles as mothers.

Recent studies have shown that there is a very clear relationship between family size on the one hand and the educational, economic, legal, and social status of women on the other. If this is the case, then everything done to increase the chances of women to have alternative choices in their lives to the traditional mother role will strengthen their capacity to make decisions about family size according to the best interest of their families and of their countries.

Thus, we see a clear relationship between the World Population Year, 1974, and International Women's Year, 1975. Women cannot hope to participate fully in decision making until they are able to exercise choice in their child-bearing role. And we cannot hope to reduce the rate of population growth until women are able to participate more widely in their societies. □

Foreign Languages—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow

This is the third in a series of articles on various subject matter areas, focusing on development of the subject area, changes over the years, and possible future trends.

By **MARY H. JACKSON**
Associate Professor of Spanish, Northwest Missouri State University, Maryville.

Comparisons can be treacherous, but the plight of foreign languages in the 1930's and early 1940's was even more bleak and dismal than it is today. Generally speaking, classroom instruction centered on grammar and translation. Students recited rules and paradigms, they heard little foreign language spoken, and they rarely spoke it themselves. What they heard or hestitantly voiced sounded dull and bookish.

In addition to this unproductive approach to foreign language instruction in the schools, the isolationism of the United States between World War I and World War II had undoubtedly contributed to the decline in the study of foreign languages. Given these circumstances, how could there have been any compelling, driving interest in foreign languages? There wasn't.

Then came Pearl Harbor. Because of the desperate need of the government for people, both civilian and military, with a knowledge of foreign languages and because of the ineffectiveness of most foreign language instruction, the so-called Army Method of teaching another language (The Army Specialized Training Program) was developed. Although the Army identified and promoted this method, the American Council of Learned Societies had developed its basic concepts from theories of foreign language learning proposed much earlier.

Structural linguists who advocated this method believed that grammar is best learned both inductively and deductively, that is, by pattern drills followed, if necessary, by explanation. (A pattern drill is an oral exercise involving repetition of a structural pattern or grammar problem. The learner receives a model sentence and then a cue requiring a response within that linguistic pattern.)

The goal of this method is rapid acquisition of oral-aural competency, with reading and writing receiving secondary emphasis. This method also stresses learning and understanding the contemporary life-style and habits of the people and the customs of the foreign country. Trainees converted miles into kilometers and kilometers into miles; they changed Fahrenheit into Centigrade and vice versa. Their vocabulary was contemporary, practical, usable. They spoke and understood the foreign language even though they might not have been familiar with its literary masterpieces.

The Army Method involved careful selection of trainees so that those who entered the program were highly motivated, intellectually superior, and linguistically talented. The nine months trainees spent immersed in learning the target language were equivalent to two years of high school plus four years of college instruction in the language.

This method could hardly have failed with so many built-in components to insure success. Its effectiveness put the spotlight on the failure of the traditional method of teaching foreign languages. The academic world should have been stirred to action but it dragged its feet instead. Between 1947 and 1953, 46 colleges and universities dropped the foreign language requirement for the bachelor of arts degree.

At the annual meeting of the Modern Language Association in St. Louis in May 1952, Earl J. McGrath, U.S. Commissioner of Education, challenged foreign language teachers:

> Whether we discharge our world responsibilities well or poorly, foolishly or wisely, ignorantly or understandingly, will be determined by our ability to understand other peoples and their ability to understand us. However valuable our military and foreign assistance programs may be, . . . our world position and the future of democracy in the decades ahead will not be determined by our military power, nor by our generous financial and economic assistance to other peoples. . . . Our own long-term leadership must rest on firmer grounds than military and other forms of material assistance.
>
> Only through the ability to use another language even modestly can one really become conscious of the full meaning of being a member of another nationality or cultural group. It is in our national interest to give as many of our citizens as possible the opportunity to gain these cultural insights. . . . If I may say so in the

most constructive and kindly spirit, our present inadequate supply of Americans who can speak, read, and understand other languages has been caused in part by the language teachers themselves.

In that same year, 1952, the Rockefeller Foundation made a grant to the Modern Language Association to assess and evaluate the role of foreign languages in our national life at that time and in the future and to develop more effective techniques in the teaching of languages.

Toward the end of the 1950's, the audio-lingual method, or the "New Key," emerged and dominated language teaching for nearly a decade. Aural comprehension and oral production had priority over the graphic skills. Dialogues became the order of the day, and students were expected to memorize them.

New textbooks with less emphasis on grammar and replete with dialogues and pattern practice drills quickly superseded the older books. Tapes of native speakers reciting the dialogues and drills became indispensable to the foreign language teacher using this method. Millions of students listened to these tapes in classrooms or in language laboratories, which sprang up all over the country. In 1958, federal funds were provided for such equipment, and by 1962, some 6,000 high schools had language laboratories.

The launching of Sputnik I in October 1957 also sparked a renewed interest in foreign languages. The National Defense Education Act, passed in 1958, established nationwide NDEA Institutes which assumed the gigantic responsibility of attempting to retrain approximately 25,000 teachers in the new methodology. In the years 1961 through 1968, nearly $7.5 million went into NDEA Institutes.

In this same period under the aegis of federal funding, an old concept received new emphasis—foreign languages in the elementary school (FLES). Prior to World War II, only a few elementary schools in the United States offered foreign languages, but by 1964, an estimated 2 million youngsters in grades K-6 were learning other languages.

FLES programs varied in pattern. Some started in kindergarten; some in the first or second grades; and many, in the fourth grade. A number of school districts subscribed to television-taught FLES programs. Larger systems employed a qualified instructor to teach foreign languages in all the elementary schools of that district. Others required regular classroom instructors to teach the language even if they had little or no foreign language training. (Many elementary school teachers in the early 1960's kept one day's assignment ahead of the pupils as they struggled to learn the foreign language they were teaching.) Still other FLES programs depended on community efforts and met once a week after school.

But the foreign language teaching profession became disillusioned in the latter part of the 1960's. The audio-lingual method did not prove to be the panacea that some had believed it to be. Many students rebelled at memorization of dialogues. Some did not always grasp learning by analogy (i.e., perceiving identical patterns in similar structural relationships), and the behavioristic theory of learning was challenged. Students complained about lack of relevancy. The outlook was discouraging.

The soul searching that gripped the profession at that time resulted in the cognitive-code approach to the teaching of foreign languages. This successor to the audio-lingual method is an amalgam of the best linguistic theories developed since the beginning of the century.

The objectives of the cognitive approach are to simultaneously develop competency in oral-aural skills, reading, and writing; it is more descriptive than prescriptive. It does not proceed in an inductive fashion as did the audio-lingual but rather from a focus on structures and linguistic functions to oral-aural exercises, reading, and writing.

Whereas the audio-lingual purist did not use the students' native language in the classroom, the cognitive-code exponent recognizes the futility of trying to explain the unknown and difficult in the foreign language. In all fairness, it should be pointed out that many, many teachers of foreign languages throughout the United States have been successfully using the cognitive approach for years even though they may not have known it by that name.

Along with the development of the cognitive-code approach, there was an increase in the number of workshops, symposiums, and in-service training programs for foreign language teachers in an effort to upgrade programs and curb the nationwide decline in the study of foreign languages. Thousands of dedicated teachers took summer courses—even when this was not required of them—to improve their teaching and their competence in foreign languages. Culture capsules (i.e., studies and presentations of segments of the foreign culture) were developed and teacher-pupil interaction analyses were made.

Secondary schools and colleges began to grant credit for study abroad. Bilingual education became a reality.

But the growth of the cognitive-code approach; the proliferation of workshops, symposiums, and seminars; and the development of supplementary learning activities

are only a part of what has been happening in foreign languages. Up until recently, the emphasis in this discipline and in others as well has been on teaching methods. Now the focus is shifting from the teacher and instruction to the student and learning. The concern is humanistic and not mechanistic.

The 1970's will probably be known as the decade of individualized instruction, an approach which many today hail as the new panacea. All will agree that it should play an important role in education. As a matter of fact, many good teachers have been individualizing their foreign language instruction to some degree for a long time.

Briefly, individualized instruction is instruction on a tailormade basis which takes into account the student's aptitude, interests, talents, motivation, and goals. Programmed instruction, mini-courses, and learning activity packages may all be a part of it. (However, programmed learning is not necessarily synonymous with individualized instruction, because if every student receives the same programmed material regardless of interest or need, instruction has not been individualized.)

An extensive individualized instruction program is not always the best pedagogy. Teachers should give careful consideration to a number of questions before embarking on such a program.

For example, does the library or media center have sufficient resources and instructional materials to augment such a program? Will students be able to drop the program without penalty, and what provisions will be made for those who do so? Will one teacher be responsible for the program, or will responsibility be shared? How will students develop oral proficiency in the language? (This is one of the main considerations in individualizing instruction of foreign languages.) What about proper sequence of courses in the foreign language? (This can be a serious difficulty if students take a wide variety of mini-courses, because students with varying degrees of proficiency may be in the same group.)

Individualized instruction in foreign languages at the introductory level may not be the most productive approach for the majority of students for the following reasons:

1. Students need to become oriented to learning a foreign language. It is not a subject that they may study spasmodically or not at all until the day before an exam. Each day's learning builds on previously acquired knowledge.

2. If students study independently, they may establish poor pronunciation habits.

3. Many students feel self-conscious and ill-at-ease when attempting to utter strange new words. A group-learning situation makes it easier for some to overcome these inhibitions than one in which they are listening to themselves.

4. The esprit de corps and camaraderie that so often are part of a class situation may be impossible to develop in many individualized instruction programs. However, the highly motivated and intellectually superior student or the slow learner may benefit from an individualized program at the introductory level.

Despite the positive developments in foreign language teaching, the study of foreign languages in the United States has declined sharply in the past several years. Colleges and universities from coast to coast have relaxed or dropped their foreign language requirements. Many high school foreign language classes have fewer students than in previous years. Scores of elementary schools have discontinued FLES programs.

Why? Is it because studying foreign languages is not really meaningful to students? Has the importance of foreign languages diminished in the eyes of the public?

Perhaps one clue to the answer to these questions is to be found in language schools throughout the nation. Last year, the Berlitz Schools of Languages of America reported that foreign language training for corporation executives makes up over half of its business compared to a negligible amount 20 years ago. The Inlingua Schools of Languages, a chain formed seven years ago, now has about 140 branches.

Another clue lies in the success of content courses taught in the foreign language in a limited number of institutions of higher education. Some foreign language specialists have also advocated interdisciplinary courses at the secondary school level.

The message seems obvious. If foreign language courses are relevant, students will enroll in them. The healthy survival of the study of foreign languages would seem to be contingent on a new role for foreign languages. The future should see more emphasis on courses that can assist those who plan for careers involving foreign languages—courses emphasizing translating, interpreting, travel and tourism, international law, international trade, and so on.

The profession has again been challenged. It must meet that challenge successfully, productively. It can and it will. □

◄ *This Maryland secondary teacher, like many others throughout the country, successfully uses the cognitive approach in teaching foreign language today.*

The Testing of Minority Children

--a Neo-Piagetian Approach

By **EDWARD A. De AVILA**
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The National Education Association, the popular press, the courts, civil rights organizations, state and federal agencies, and others have pointed to the failure of the test-publishing industry to consider fully the cultural and linguistic differences of minority children when constructing psychological tests. Test publishers have responded by translating existing intelligence and nationally normed achievement tests into other languages such as Spanish, adjusting norms for ethnic subgroups, and attempting to construct culture-free tests. Each approach involves distinct problems. Moreover, in our opinion, the tests as they are currently designed are of little use to anybody.

Translating existing intelligence or achievement tests for non-English-speaking children often creates problems. First, regional differences within a language make it difficult to use a single translation in a standardized testing situation where examiner and examinee are permitted virtually no interaction. Thus, while *toston* means a quarter or a half dollar to a Chicano, it means a portion of banana squashed and fried to a Puerto Rican.

Second, monolingual translations are inappropriate because the language familiar to non-English-speaking children is often a combination of two languages as in the case of Tex-Mex. Third, many non-English-speaking children have never learned to read in their spoken language. For example, many Chicano children speak Spanish but have had no instruction in reading Spanish.

Another major response of the testing industry to criticism has been to establish or to propose establishment of regional and ethnic norms. Such a practice leads to lower expectations for minorities, which in turn may lower children's aspirations to succeed. Furthermore, ethnic norms do not take into consideration the complex reasons *why* minority children on the average score lower than Anglo American children on IQ tests. Ethnic norms are potentially dangerous from the social perspective because they provide a basis for invidious comparisons between racial groups. The tendency is to assume that lower scores are indicative of lower potential, thereby contributing to the self-fulfilling prophecy of lower expectations for minority children and reinforcing the genetic-inferiority argument advanced by Arthur Jensen and others.

In addition, if test publishers and users are willing to establish ethnic norms, they should also establish norms based on sex differences. To take into account both sex and all the ethnic subgroups in the United States would require an almost infinite set of norm tables. From the practical point alone, this is absurd. One might wonder what norms a publisher would use for a set of male/

female twins who had a Mexican father and a Hungarian mother.

The testing industry has also responded to criticism of conventional IQ tests by attempting to create culture-free tests. Such tests are difficult to construct, and many question whether they achieve their goal of being free of cultural bias. Tests of mental ability and/or achievement attempt to determine the ability of a child to manipulate certain elements of a problem into a predetermined solution. It is difficult to conceive of test elements equally familiar to children of all ethnic or cultural groups, especially when test developers are members of a group themselves.

In a large number of frequently used IQ and achievement tests, cultural influences on items cause the tests to measure something other than that for which they were designed. Thus, aside from what many tests set out to measure, to a large extent they also measure—

- *Socialization.* Certain test items are actually measures of the child's family value system. In tests marketed in the United States, the referent value system is, generally, that of the Anglo American middle class.

This characteristic is particularly evident in the comprehension scale of one of the major individually administered IQ tests. The test presents questions very much like this one provided by the publisher as a typical, but not authentic, item from the test: "What should you do if you see someone forget his book when he leaves his seat in a restaurant?" This type of question has little or nothing to do with a child's ability to process, manipulate, and/or code information. The answers depend almost exclusively on whether a child has been socialized under the particular ethical system implied by the question.

- *Productivity or level of aspiration.* Many tests confuse what they hope to measure with a measure of productivity or level of aspiration. For example, in a large number of tests, the child who produces the most responses receives a higher score than the one who stops responding after only a few attempts. The assumption underlying this type of test is that all subjects will produce as many responses as they are able, in other words, that they all have the same level of aspiration.

Timed tests also confuse the measurement of ability with the measurement of aspiration. In timed tests, which constitute the majority of published group tests, the tester asks children to work quickly, quietly, and efficiently. Little regard is given to children who are not motivated to work in that manner. For the purpose of boosting statistical reliability, tests are constructed in such a way that children are asked a large number of questions which vary only a little in content.

A similar problem involves tests which sequence items in order of increasing difficulty. In these, children encounter increasing levels of failure and frustration. For those who start out fearfully, as do most children unfamiliar with the social demands of the school or test situation, the first indication of failure or difficulty discourages them from continuing.

- *Experience or specific learning.* Tests that require answers of fact assume that all children taking the test will have had about the same exposure to the facts being tested. Any number of examples involving vocabulary bear out the spuriousness of this assumption. It is impossible to determine whether minority children miss a test item because they have never been exposed to the word or because they lack the capacity to understand the word. Problems of this type are found in virtually any test of mental ability which uses a score on a vocabulary subtest to infer ultimate capability.

One of the most widely used individually administered intelligence tests is full of examples of the importance of specific experience on test results. For example, the child is asked questions of vocabulary which bear directly on past experience or exposure to the words being tested.

Now let us consider the validity and utility of the IQ score. Forgetting for a moment standardized achievement tests, the original justification for the use of the IQ test was that the scores statistically predict mental retardation and low school achievement. Yet in 1971, sociologist Jane Mercer found that of adults who scored below 79 on an individually administered IQ test (and who would have been labeled mentally retarded had they been schoolchildren), 84 percent had completed eight grades or more in school, 83 percent had held a job, 80 percent were financially independent, and almost 100 percent could do their own shopping and travel alone. In other words, even at the task for which experts agree the IQ test is best suited—screening for mental retardation—the IQ measure probably has a dubious real-life validity.

In addition to its traditional use as an indicator of mental retardation, many educators and politicians have come to consider the IQ test to be a useful instrument for teachers, school districts, and state and federal agencies. Indeed, many states mandate that districts administer IQ tests several times as a child goes through the school system. But do the results really help the teacher do a better job?

Let us consider a typical example. A teacher suspects that a child has a severe learning disability and asks the school psychologist to test the child. After the psychologist gives an individually administered test in which the child scores an IQ of 87, the psychologist writes up an extensive report of impres-

sions of the child's performance and potential. Upon receiving the report, the teacher responds in surprise, "But I knew all that. I want to know how I can reach this child." Thus, neither psychologist nor teacher is any wiser despite considerable time and expense administering and evaluating the IQ test.

While few psychologists would agree that educational decisions affecting a child's life should be made just on the basis of an IQ score, the fact remains that such decisions are made by educators who, through personal fiat, supported by state mandate, ignore both individual subscale profiles and psychologists' admonitions for the sake of practical expediency. The result is, of course, a form of default institutional racism.

Thus, while much of the controversy surrounding IQ tests and minority children focuses on whether the IQ model is a valid one, a more practical question concerns the general utility of the information the test produces. In order to answer, one must consider who is asking the question and why. Within the educational system, there are qualitative differences in the type of information needed, depending on the source of the need. To a large extent, much of the confusion surrounding the issue of whether to test stems from failure to consider these differences.

Several levels within the educational system require information traditionally obtained through IQ testing: the funding level which involves federal and state agencies; the local level, which involves district personnel and school principals; and the school level, which involves classroom teacher, paraprofessional, and parents.

Federal and state funding agencies expect IQ tests to supply them with information concerning statewide or districtwide needs for the purpose of allocating funds and information concerning program effectiveness. There would seem to be far better ways of meeting the first need than trying to infer specific needs from an omnibus assessment based on so poorly understood a concept as IQ. Assessment procedures which can evaluate whether specific educational programs are needed in specific areas such as science would be more useful. Such procedures exist, and these allow direct inference from test performance to program need.

The second need—that of knowing about the effectiveness of particular programs—has become particularly demanding recently in light of accountability and evaluation/audit requirements. In response, these federal and state agencies have often mandated that IQ and standardized achievement tests be administered to evaluate programs.

Actually, program evaluations can be made through a variety of procedures, none of which necessarily has anything to do with IQ or standardized achievement tests. For example, a reasonable assessment can be made by interviewing administrators, teachers, parents, and children as to their perceptions of program effectiveness and by testing specific program objectives and reporting changes in group scores without reference to individual scores.

Local school district personnel require information about the needs of children and the effectiveness of programs in the same way as do the federal and state agencies. However, since needs assessments are usually conducted at the state level, local officers tend to rely on the state-provided information rather than to conduct expensive research on their own.

Ideally, evaluation of individual programs should center around collection of data dealing directly with program objectives and activities. However, instruments of evaluation often have little to do with the actual program; IQ or nationally normed achievement tests are used, providing scores which often have little in the way of information about effectiveness of individual programs and program components.

The last to be considered in the educational hierarchy are, unfortunately, classroom teachers and what they need to assist the learner. How can teachers translate numerical IQ scores into curriculum or instructional prescriptions? This question is particularly perplexing because teachers cannot rely on absolute point differences on IQ scores. For example, if a teacher wanted to know what should be done differently for children with scores of 92 and 100, the answer would have to be "nothing" because these scores are functionally equivalent. They are both within the "normal" range, i.e., within one standard deviation of the mean. However, when the same eight-point difference is between IQ scores of 84 and 92, there is a different implication. The score of 84 is approximately one standard deviation below the mean and is, in some states, considered to indicate that a child is in the "retarded" or "slow learner" category. In this case, the eight points which separate the 84 and 92 scores would necessitate different recommendations for the children involved.

In many cases, the same criticisms apply to achievement tests that provide collapsed or summary achievement scores. What educational distinctions and decisions can teachers make about children with reading grade equivalency scores of 3.2 versus 3.6 and 3.6 versus 4.0? Neither the IQ score nor the collapsed achievement score provides enough information on which to base sound daily educational decisions.

These issues have brought us to consider an alternative assessment model which derives from the

work of Jean Piaget. We have been working with Juan Pascual-Leone of York University, Toronto, in developing a neo-Piagetian procedure, which has been tested with approximately 1,100 Mexican American and other children in four Southwestern states. Children were tested using standardized tests of school achievement, IQ, and four Piaget-derived measures developed individually and jointly by De Avila and Pascaul-Leone over the past 10 years.

The goals of this research were:

1. To test interrelations among the four neo-Piagetian measures in a sample of primarily Mexican American children who live in different areas and come from different socioeconomic backgrounds

2. To examine the psychometric properties of these neo-Piagetian measures

3. To examine the relation between developmental level as assessed by the neo-Piagetian procedures and IQ as assessed by standardized measures

4. To examine sex differences in performances on the tests.

Results of this research have shown that:

1. These measures exhibit a developmental progression of performance scores across age in accordance with Piaget's theory of cognitive development.

2. Performance of the primarily Mexican American sample is developmentally appropriate and within the limits of expected levels of cognitive development for given chronological ages.

3. There are no meaningful differences between the sexes.

4. Scores of children taking the tests in English, Spanish, or bilingually showed no appreciable differences.

5. There were no ethnic group differences on the neo-Piagetian measures of cognitive development at the New Mexico location, the only place where direct ethnic group comparisons could be made. There were, however, consistent ethnic group differences on the IQ measures (Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test) and on the achievement measure (Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills) always in favor of Anglo Americans.

These results have several implications. First, as this was a field study, further work is needed with greater control over such variables as language background, ethnicity, and achievement. With such controls, the nature of the relationship between neo-Piagetian measures and traditional measures of capacity and achievement can be assessed with greater precision. Second, results of this study indicate that the relationship between cognitive development and school achievement, especially of Mexican American children, must be more closely examined. Third, the failure to find a difference between Mexican American and Anglo American children on the neo-Piagetian measures leads us to adopt the position that Mexican American children develop cognitively the same as Anglo American children. It appears, however, that cognitive development in Mexican American children and perhaps others is not in itself a sufficient condition to engender a level of school achievement equivalent to that of middleclass children.

Failure of Mexican American children to achieve in school and to perform well on traditional capacity and achievement measures must be attributed to reasons other than alleged cognitive inferiority. Some reasons for poor performance, we feel, lie in the design characteristics of curriculum and other classroom materials, language usage, and the situational contexts or givens used in both testing and presenting curriculum. Culturally biased in favor of particular groups, they put all other children at a distinct disadvantage.

While these findings are of importance in understanding the cognitive development of Mexican American children, the more basic question remains: How can the classroom teacher use the information provided by the neo-Piagetian approach on a regular day-by-day basis?

In an attempt to generate test information which directly fulfills informational/instructional needs within the schools, we have designed a computerized system which deals with information needs of the three levels of school personnel discussed previously. At the administrative level, this system provides group statistical data for program evaluation and needs assessment and, at the teacher level, provides classroom recommendations rather than scores.

This system simultaneously takes into account achievement and developmental scores for both the individual child and the child's referent group. It thus becomes possible to determine all of the possible test outcomes and, thereby, to design individual computerized program prescriptions for each child tested. Workshops are then held with the teachers involved to discuss the implementation of these prescriptions. A copy of these recommendations can also be sent to the home so that parents are aware of what the teacher is trying to accomplish with the child and can, with guidance from the teacher, participate in the child's education.

This system, called Program Assessment Pupil Instruction (PAPI), was tested successfully in the same four states where data were gathered for the above described research.

It should be noted that the PAPI system is designed so that a child's peer or referent group can be designated in numerous ways, such as grade, sex, or program group.

Thus far we have tested the PAPI system by working directly with classroom teachers, by explaining the computer printouts, by listening to suggestions, and by continuously refining our approach. □

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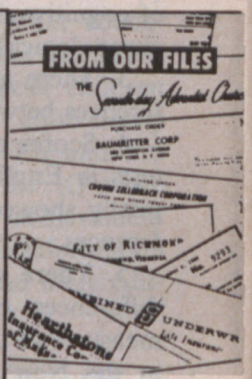

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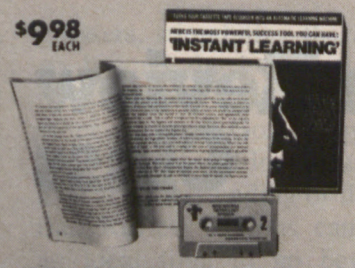

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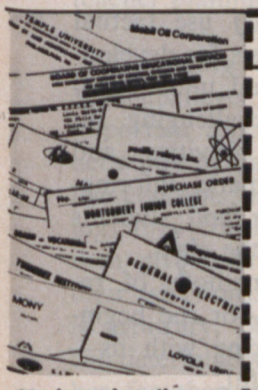

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The Review Class

This is another in a series of articles presenting instructional techniques in various disciplines that seem likely to motivate students.

By **WILLIAM J. MOYNIHAN**
Assistant Professor, Department of Education, and Director, Teaching Intern Program, Colgate University, and
RICHARD J. CARROLL
Social Studies Teacher, Hamilton (New York) Central School District.

Unit exam—on Friday; Review classes—on Wednesday and Thursday.

Sound familiar? Most of us follow the pattern suggested above. The scheduling of a test almost automatically means that the day or two before the exam will be devoted to review.

The review class is very much a part of the educational scene. And so it should be. The review process can help students pull together, organize, and better understand previous work. It can also provide systematic information for the teacher in assessing the progress of students. Review sessions, however, typically fall far short of these goals.

Our observations of ourselves and other teachers (we taught in the same high school for several years) and, more recently, of student teachers and interns have convinced us that review classes are usually fact-oriented, teacher-centered, and poorly planned. They fall into the trap Leonard H. Clark warned against in *Teaching Social Studies in Secondary Schools:* "The ordinary oral quiz in which teachers ask fact questions around and around the room is drill, not review. It is usually not worth the effort."

Even in the most student-oriented classrooms, review sessions seem to take on the style Clark describes. Perhaps one reason lies in the rush to "cover" in one or two days material that took weeks to develop. Another may well be the fact that, generally speaking, neither the literature on teaching nor teachers themselves have critically examined review classes. We found few references to the topic —and fewer helpful suggestions. So, we turned to the trial-and-error approach in attempting to improve our review sessions with students.

We visualize the review class as a time for consolidating previous learning, bringing a fresh perspective on that learning, and providing a basis for further learning. These classes are most successful if they (a) give students the opportunity to develop insight into their learning processes and the chance to review the material rather than having the teacher review it *for* the class; (b) use factual information as a basis for developing broad conceptual understandings; (c) present challenging, interesting learning activities; and (d) provide systematic information to the teacher and students on the progress of the class.

The following methods of review are those we—or the beginning teachers working with us—have found successful.

Putting It All Together. The

Review—a time for consolidating previous learning, bringing a fresh perspective on that learning, and providing a basis for further learning.

teacher prepares a handout that has key terms and names from the unit listed at random. In a unit on the U.S. Constitution, for example, items could include: *federalism, checks and balances, Hamilton, Rousseau, Locke, power,* and *liberty*. Older students can usually handle a list with several dozen items.

Students then categorize the items in a meaningful way and develop a brief justification for the classification system. Small groups of students may work together on the assignment or students may work independently. Students then present, discuss, and examine the various classifications.

This approach has a number of advantages. For example, students need to review factual information in carrying out the assignment, but it also encourages them to interpret that data in a creative, personal way and to use this information as a basis for developing higher level understandings. Also, the approach centers on the students' perception of the unit. The way students perceive information should provide a basis for future teacher planning.

Evaluating Previous Learning. Students develop a list of the most important aspects of the unit under study by naming the five facts, five concepts, and five understandings they consider most vital and then give a brief justification for their selections. (The number five is arbitrary, of course. Teachers can determine an appropriate number for their class depending on the unit and the maturity of the students.) Students can draw upon texts, notes, and any other material used in prior work in making their choices.

In this approach, students must evaluate nearly every aspect of the unit in relation to every other aspect. Review classes can then be discussion-oriented and center around the various personal perspectives of "what's worth knowing."

By using this method, teachers can learn whether students see the materials in the same light as they do. As a result of the class discussion generated by the assignment, teachers must often defend their reasons for presenting the unit as they did.

There are variations of this approach. For example, asking students to list the most *unimportant* items tends to generate even more discussion than asking them to list the most important. Also, this variation provides a different sort of feedback to the teacher on student perceptions.

In still another variation, students review previous work with the intent of suggesting to the teacher what should be left out of next year's course, what should be included, and what changes in emphasis should take place. Again, students gain by having to review the material in the unit, and the teacher benefits by their perceptions.

Going Beyond Material Covered in a Unit. Jerome S. Bruner has suggested that "general education does best to aim at being generic education, training men to be good guessers, stimulating the ability to go beyond the information given to probable reconstructions of other events." Going beyond the material covered in a unit requires a deep understanding of that material. Review sessions can provide an ideal time to go beyond the information covered.

Students can profitably use review time by raising basic questions unanswered in a unit. Human knowledge is limited, and answers are only temporary in any discipline. However, the ability to use information to arrive at personally and socially relevant questions is an important skill.

In one approach, students review the literature used in the unit and derive the questions the authors must have asked in order to arrive at their answers. A second part of the assignment is more difficult and requires practice. Students list questions they wish the authors had asked but did not. Students can then compare the types of questions different individuals ask and the means by which they could go about answering their questions.

In another variation of this approach, students write an analysis that also goes beyond the information in the unit, e.g., "Compare and contrast the themes developed in Kurt Vonnegut's *Player Piano* with the way our school operates" or "How might Hamilton and Jefferson describe the current distribution of power in American society?" Students can then examine the information from the unit which was used in developing the analyses. □

Teaching Metrics to Beginners

By TOMMIE A. WEST
Elementary Math Teacher Specialist, Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools.

In the comic strip, *Funky,* Funky Winkerbean's mother asks her friend, "What do you think of the metric system?"

"I'm not sure," replies the friend. "Is that anything like the Atkins Diet?"

Teachers who know scarcely more about the metric system than Mrs. Winkerbean's friend are being called on to teach it; many feel inadequate and ill-prepared to undertake the task.

This article describes some ideas that primary or intermediate grade teachers, however naive with regard to metrics, can use in teaching the subject.

Before presenting these ideas, let me make two comments. First, I think teachers should avoid excessive references to English-system equivalences to metric units. The metric system should stand alone as a system of measurement.

Second, even though conversions, decimals, and metric nomenclature are legitimate topics for metric instruction, I will not deal with them in this description of first steps in teaching the metric system.

Measuring distance and constructing scales. One of the first goals in teaching any system of measurement is to enable the learner to make measurements using prescribed units. In teaching distance or linear measurement in the metric system, earliest activities should involve replicating the metric "unit" along the object to be measured. Thus, pupils can place decimeter-length rods end-to-end to find how many units long a desk or book is. Similarly, they can place centimeter-length rods or meter-length strips end-to-end to find the measure of the object in centimeters or meters.

After this activity, pupils can use a ruler or scale for making measurements. Since many young children do not understand how a ruler "works," an important and interesting activity is to construct one. (Commercial rulers and meter sticks are generally not useful as a *first* tool because they carry too much information for children.)

To aid pupils in constructing rulers, the teacher can rule off centimeter lines on a ditto master and duplicate it. Then each child can paste a strip to a construction paper strip for strength and cut the strip off at the first line so that the first centimeter unit is intact. Children can line centimeter-length rods along the ruler to show what the lines and numerals stand for. Older primary children can insert the numerals, writing them next to the line that means 1 centimeter, 2 centimeters, and so on.

For the very young primary child, decimeter-length rods provide a better unit model than the centimeter-length rods because they are easier to handle and the children will find it easier to write the numerals in the larger decimeter-length space. (Adding-machine tape, reinforced by masking tape, makes a good, flexible tape for a decimeter scale.) Again, the teacher should remind children to place numerals next to the line for 1 decimeter, 2 decimeters, etc.

In making measuring devices at the primary level, centimeters, decimeters, and meters are useful units for linear measurement. Although some would question the usefulness of teaching about the seldom-used decimeter unit, I recommend using it with primary children because of its convenient size and because so many commercial decimeter-length materials are available.

After children construct a measuring device, they can carry out measuring activities. One that they enjoy is finding Cuisenaire rods of a given length or finding the length of a given rod.

Making a design using Cuisenaire rods is a natural extension of this activity. The teacher can provide a sketch of a design, and the children may then find rods of the proper length to make the design. Or the children may make a design of rods, sketching a line pattern for it, and labeling the lines in appropriate centimeter units.

One resourceful teacher, after constructing a poster-size Missy Meter drawn entirely in straight lines, asked students to measure and record her various dimensions in centimeters. And, of course, children always like to measure themselves. A worksheet titled "All About Me" provides a guide to making measurements of the foot, head, waist, or even nose. Children can use string to find measurements which would otherwise be hard to measure, lining up a piece of string the same length

"Guess how many centimeters long ► the string is, and then actually measure it with the meter stick."

as a body part next to a ruler.

Curved lines can also be fun to measure, and a piece of string is a must for such tasks.

Estimating distances. The ability to estimate the length of an object in metric units is a useful skill, not only because of its social utility as the metric system grows in importance but because this ability indicates that the student is thinking in metric units.

This skill comes only through trial and error. Some activities which develop estimating ability follow:

- The teacher provides a collection of objects of assorted sizes and two paper plates or trays, one labeled "less than 2 centimeters" and the second labeled "more than 2 centimeters." After sorting the collection into the two categories, children can check their estimates by using a 2-centimeter line drawn on a tongue depresser. (An extra tray labeled "exactly 2 centimeters" may be provided for items which fit neither of the other two categories.)
- A Measure Hunt will challenge children to find objects of various given lengths. The child or team of children, armed with rulers, who finds the most objects of the given lengths wins the hunt.
- Guessing body measurements before measuring is an activity older primary pupils may enjoy.
- A creative teacher has devised Mickey the Centimeter Eater, a Mickey Mouse painted on the front of a large box with his mouth cut out. Two or more children, each with a collection of objects, take turns drawing cards which read "Mickey wants to eat 7 centimeters," "Mickey wants to eat 4 centimeters," or whatever. Each player reads a card aloud, finds an object which he or she thinks fits what Mickey wants to eat, and puts it in Mickey's mouth.

A child behind Mickey, armed with a centimeter ruler, measures the object to see if it fits Mickey's desire. If it does, the measurer keeps it; but if it doesn't, he or she returns it through the orifice to the child who fed Mickey.

The first child to empty his or her box (or have the fewest pieces remaining) wins the game.

Measuring and estimating weight and capacity. Primary children can learn to measure the weight and capacity of objects. After initial experiences to develop the concepts of heavy, heavier, and heaviest, followed by experiences weighing objects with nonstandard units such as cubic-inch blocks, paper clips, or other "weight" units, children may find the weight of objects in metric units.

As in linear measurement, replication of the unit is a first step. Children may find the weight by finding how many units it takes to balance an object. Some centimeter-length cubes weigh about a gram and can be used to find how many "grams" it takes to balance an object on a sensitive pan balance. Some metal washers can also be used as gram weights.

After the children have used single-unit weights, they can find the weight of objects by using multiple-unit weights. While commercial scales are useful, again, they obscure the unit of measurement and should be used *after* activities with single units.

Estimating the weight of objects in metric units logically follows weighing activities. Children can verify their guesses of the weight of objects or arrangements of objects from lightest to heaviest by actually weighing the objects.

A distinction is usually made between mass and weight, with the gram technically defined as a unit of mass. However, at the primary level, this distinction is immaterial and should be avoided.

Finding the capacity of containers using a liter or deciliter container is a first step in capacity measurement. Handling such a container helps the child become familiar with the unit.

Calibrating containers using metric units is similar to constructing a ruler in linear measurement. Pupils may calibrate plastic jugs, cups, or buckets in deciliter or liter units. Milliliters are inappropriate units for young primary children but they may be used by older children.

As in other types of metric measurement, estimating is a desirable activity, and the teacher should provide opportunities for children to judge the capacity of various containers. Pupils may use dried beans or sand or rice to fill containers.

Teachers of primary and intermediate children will find that pupils enjoy metric-measurement exercises just as they do all measurement activities. Those who follow the steps outlined here may find that teaching beginning metric measurement is fun and not at all the fearful chore they may have expected. □

The 1974 NEA Representative Assembly passed a resolution on "Conversion to the Metric System," similar to resolutions passed since 1969. The new resolution reads as follows:

"The NEA believes that a carefully planned effort to convert to the International System of Units (SI metric system) is essential to the future of American industrial and technological development and to the evolution of effective world communication. It supports federal legislation that would facilitate such a conversion.

"The Association urges that the SI metric system of weights and measures be taught at all educational levels to assure the orderly transition to the use of the SI metric system as a primary system."

The Representative Assembly also passed a New Business Item calling for NEA support and/or initiation of legislation for establishment of a U.S. metric system.

For free single copies of a new briefing memo on the metric system and/or an updated list of resources on the energy crisis, send a No. 10 self-addressed stamped (30¢) envelope to NEA Instruction and Professional Development, Room 715, NEA Center.

Teachers, Power, and American Myths

By **AL RABY**
UniServ Director, United Teachers of Chicago, and
STEPHEN A. PERKINS
Development Officer, South Shore National Bank, and Former Assistant Director, United Teachers of Chicago.

Schools have taken as one of their central objectives the inculcation of the basic beliefs of our society. These basic beliefs are often encapsulated in largely apocryphal stories about figures like Washington and Lincoln. Purporting to describe reality in our society, they convey such notions as the one that all native-born citizens have an equal opportunity to reach the White House.

But these beliefs *are* beliefs: They are not reality but a highly colored, idealized version of reality, and, when full-blown, they become secular myths.

Several of these myths have a central position in America's view of itself: the virtue of individualism, the opportunity for upward mobility, the objectivity of justice, material reward as *the* measure of success, and the equality of all persons before the law. There are others, but let us briefly look at these five.

Individualism. This myth contends that each person is an individual and that it is his or her differences from others which give value. It holds that the individual rather than the group is the source of wealth, value, and social benefit and that group ties, be they of family, community, or ethnic group, are only hindrances to individual progress.

Upward Mobility. This myth holds that the financial, social, and political structure of American society is fundamentally open. Anyone who is willing to work hard can move up the "ladder of success." The only obstacles to success are those which the individual makes for himself or herself.

Objectivity of Justice. This is the belief that laws have a reality apart from the foibles of individuals and the vicissitudes of social and political change. Justice is seen as universal and permanent—characteristics which give it its legitimacy.

Materialism. This myth contends that the most relevant measure of success in society is wealth and that whatever wealth an individual can amass is justified by his or her cleverness in gaining it.

Universal Equality. The purport of this myth is that all people are treated equally before the law: Blacks, whites, men, and women are presented as having equal access to society's benefits. In the classroom, for example, Officer Friendly is presented as the embodiment of the law's even-handed approach.

We teachers are expected to teach these myths in our classrooms. Often we are more than will-

ing to do so because they have had personal significance to us in our own rise toward economic security and social status. We teachers are, by and large, an upwardly mobile group. Many of us are second-generation Americans for whom the role of teacher is the fulfillment of a long-time personal and family dream.

Our process of mobility was never easy: It required a struggle, often against considerable odds. But, unlike many others, we have "made it"—in part by believing in the American myths and acting on them. We believed that our individual efforts made the critical difference in our social and economic success; we believed that there was "room at the top" for us on the "ladder of success."

Because our belief in the American myths helped us achieve our goals, we tend to be uncritical of these myths and often become their ideal transmitters in the classroom. After the fact, we tend to attribute our success to our virtue and hard work. We forget—or deny—that there were many factors in our success which we did not control and which, had things happened differently, might have placed us in very different social situations. It is in part to rid ourselves of this sense of the precariousness of our own success that we deny our past and all those who, beginning in the same social situation, did not match it.

Thus, in continuing to accept the myths, we tend to deny our origins. They are merely something which we have transcended and left behind, whether it be the farm, small town, or big city ghetto. In our classrooms, we tend to gravitate toward those students who also believe the American myths and to support their moves toward success.

We tend to reject those students whose experience is a daily reminder that the myths are false—or not for them. They become labeled as the "behavior problems," the "failures," the "lazy students," the "underachievers." Whatever the name, the theme is the same: They're not making it because of something wrong with them. Our adherence to the myth thus alienates us from many of our students; in the inner-city school, it cuts us off from almost all our students, who know from their experience on the street that hard work is not enough, that it takes luck or a "hustle" to succeed.

The adherence by teachers to America's myths continues to be one of the greatest obstacles to a powerful teachers' movement. The teachers' movement has only been successful where teachers have learned that they are themselves victimized by these same myths and where collectively the myths have been successfully broken down.

Take individualism: The message of the teachers' movement is that as individuals we are powerless to change our conditions, but together we can have sufficient power to protect ourselves and affect the quality of education. The image of the teacher that used to be propagated by education associations, however, was that of the isolated professional, performing his or her job in an individual classroom. That myth created and reinforced barriers between teachers which left the principal, superintendent, and board of education as the only organized and powerful agents in the education profession.

Take upward mobility: The image of the teacher as a professional with high status was offered as an *alternative* to decent wages. Pressing for wages and rights was viewed as a "lower class" thing to do. So the myth locked us into a class image of ourselves that was against our own best interests.

Take justice: When a judge first slapped an injunction on us for striking, the myth told us that he or she was acting from the objectivity and justice of the law. But after a few strikes, we have come to realize that justice is political. The judge merely enforces a law which was earlier written by politicians, and whether or not we end up in jail depends on whether or not we have gotten the right laws passed in the legislature. We also have learned that justice can also depend on the political connections of the judge and on his or her evaluation of our power versus that of the board of education.

Take materialism: Salary increases are difficult to achieve, but becoming educational leaders with power is even harder to achieve. Many boards, counting on our legitimate desire for a decent wage, try to set up an either-or choice for us: get either adequate wages or a role in educational decision making. They then count on our belief in the myth of materialism to make us settle for wages alone, leaving the control of the educational process in their hands.

Take universal equality: Our belief in this myth makes us unresponsive even to those in our own profession, particularly minority teachers, who know that the myth doesn't apply to them and who, in crisis situations, often oppose a strike of a union which excludes them.

Each of these five myths is a kind of bondage to an illusion which we, as members of the teachers' movement, are in the process of throwing off so that we can become more powerful and responsive leaders in education. But destroying myths is difficult; even the most militant teachers must feel some nostalgia for the time when they saw these myths, not as traps for the powerless, but as descriptions of reality.

Now that the teachers' movement has helped us to break through the myths which bound us, we must begin to grapple seriously with the issue of power—what it is, how to get it, and then how to use it wisely. Inevitably, this analysis must take us into politics, for politics is the

(Continued on page 86)

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arena of power. As we have become more conscious of ourselves as a group that was previously powerless, we have increasingly come to value our participation in the political process.

The practical reasons for teacher involvement in politics are many and significant. The legislature determines everything from funding of our schools to our rights to collective bargaining. The school board hires and fires us; it determines our salaries, our resources, and the context of our profession. It makes teaching either productive or fruitless. Thus, we must explore the mechanics and dynamics of power with the same seriousness with which we approached union organizing in the first place.

The first lesson of politics is to know one's constituency. Who makes up the constituency of education? It is the students, parents, and community which "consumes" our services. They "elect" us, pay us, and determine the conditions of our employment. They also set—or fail to set—the educational goals which we must implement in the schools.

We teachers cannot afford to pay attention to our constituency only in times of crisis when we need strike support or at election time when we ask them to back politicians favorable to education. Like good politicians, we must be continually conscious of and responsive to our constituency.

The most important component of that responsiveness is to provide good service—to educate. Teachers must take the lead in developing and articulating the educational alternatives open to the community and they must be involved in choosing among them. It is this teacher-leadership role which, in the long run, will convince parents, voters, and taxpayers that the education their children are receiving is worth the cost.

The adherence by teachers to America's myths continues to be one of the greatest obstacles to a powerful teachers' movement.

Although we teachers are making strides in breaking down the myths in our association organizing, we have yet to generalize our insights to society at large. We tend to carry within us two separate views of the world—one, the realistic picture which our association experience has taught us; the other, the mythical picture which we carry over from our own public school education.

As a result, we have not carried our new understanding of the world into our classrooms. For example, we often still transmit to our students the same old myth of individualism, even though we now know personally and collectively as teachers that collective action, not unbridled individualism, is the route to power and dignity.

This failure to transfer understanding from teacher organizing to teaching itself stems from our conception of our role. The teacher, in the eyes of many of our students, is an important person because he or she is socially and economically successful. This image is extremely flattering to us. We hate to lose our exalted role by acknowledging publicly—and especially to our students—our individual powerlessness.

As we look at our students with an honest and critical eye, however, we can see that they are trapped by the same myths that threaten to trap us. Whether it is the rural child who in 10 years may be forced to cope with an urban slum, the suburban child on drugs because of the emptiness of his or her environment, or the ghetto child destined to live in a ghetto the rest of his or her life, the American myths prevent them from understanding the world in which they must learn to act.

Where teachers used to be distant images of success, we now must come to share with students our own experience of powerlessness to effect change as individuals, our own limited mobility. The gap between the teacher who has "made it" and the student who strives to "make it" must be breached by a new honesty, by a new shared understanding of the political and social world.

We must share with our students our growing understanding of the workings of power, because power is the context of their lives as well as ours.

It is education of the finest sort which teaches that thoughtful collective action is the means to justice, that the courts often discriminate in favor of the powerful, and that money is not the ultimate judge of an individual's worth.

This new appreciation of reality, when shared in the classroom, can provide a new and exciting bond between the teacher and the student and can establish the basis of a new and more mutually rewarding relationship.

What more valuable educational experience could the rural child, the suburban child, the ghetto child have than to have their eyes opened to the realities of the world around them? And what can be the purpose of education if not to provide students with the experiences and intellectual tools to cope with those realities? □

The Journal invites reader reaction to this article.

DEVELOPMENTS

Discipline: Number-One Problem

Lack of discipline is the number-one problem in the public schools again this year, for the fifth time in the past six years, say respondents to the Sixth Annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education. Only in 1971 did the public place discipline below finance on the school problem list.

Some two-thirds of the public fear that schools may be a "breeding ground for crime and violence and for future Watergates," as Gallup expresses it. They say there is either a "great deal" of stealing (33 percent) or "some" (34 percent) in their local schools. Another 48 percent think student gangs are either a "big problem" or "somewhat of a problem" in the schools.

The entire poll appears in the September 1974 issue of *Phi Delta Kappan.*

Nursery School Enrollment Increases

The number of children in nursery schools more than doubled while the total of kindergarten pupils showed little change during 1964-73, according to a report by the Bureau of the Census. In 1964, 1 of every 7 children enrolled in preprimary programs (including kindergartens and nursery schools) was enrolled in nursery school; by 1973, this proportion had increased to nearly 1 in 3.

Indian Students Get Bill of Rights

A bill of rights for students attending Bureau of Indian Affairs schools has become a part of the Code of Federal Regulations. Some of the rights listed in the regulation are the right to an education, freedom from unreasonable search, freedom of religion and culture, freedom of speech and expression, and due process.

Arts Programs for Disadvantaged

The Office of Education has awarded nearly $1 million to a combination of 11 state art commissions and state education agencies to help disadvantaged schoolchildren overcome minority-group isolation by working in the arts. The awards were made under the Emergency School Aid Act.

The money is awarded for use in classes; workshops; demonstrations; and performances in the visual arts, dance, music, drama, film, painting, and other media.

NEA Ranks Among Top Lobbies

NEA ranked twelfth in a listing of the 25 top-spending lobby groups in 1973, according to *Congressional Quarterly*. Common Cause, the citizen's lobby, ranked first, with a spending figure of $934,835. NEA's figure was $162,755. According to NEA officials, the Association makes a complete disclosure of expenditures, including salaries of full- and part-time lobbyists, their expenses, and pro rata office expenses.

Extraclass Activities

Why do students participate or not participate in extraclass activities? Robert L. Buser and Ruth Long, two professors from Southern Illinois University, polled 2,000 Illinois students from 25 schools in rural, urban, and suburban areas to find out.

Following in rank order are the most frequently checked reasons students gave for participating: for fun and personal enjoyment, for personal achievement, as an outlet for individual needs and special interests, and to broaden personal contacts.

Respondents also indicated why they do not participate: They have jobs outside school. Activities are irrelevant to needs and interests. Activities are scheduled after school. Activities are controlled by social cliques and groups.

Education and Lifetime Income

A recent Bureau of the Census report shows that the estimated lifetime income of men from 18 to death who completed four or more years of college was $758,000 in 1972, or $279,000 higher than for those who were high school graduates.

The estimated income of men who completed high school was about $479,000, or $135,000 more than for men who only finished elementary school.

Birth Weight and School Success

Babies born weighing less than five-and-one-half pounds had significantly more school-related problems in later years than those born weighing more, according to a University of Minnesota research project. The study of 241 Minnesota infants born between 1960 and 1964 also shows that low-birth-weight boys are more prone to have school problems than low-birth-weight girls and that low-birth-weight children usually score lower on tests of mental and language development, school readiness, and achievement through age seven.

1975—International Women's Year

The United Nations has designated 1975 as International Women's Year (IWY). The UN observance will include a conference in Bogotá, Colombia, in June 1975 and a reaffirmation of its commitment to women through its Commission on the Status of Women.

NEA, one of the supporting organizations of IWY, has helped prepare a brochure on the subject. Free copies are available from the Office of International Relations, NEA Center, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Courses by Newspaper

Courses by Newspaper has begun its second year under funding from the National Endowment for the Humanities. The second course, titled In Search of the American Dream, now appears in participating daily and weekly newspapers nationwide.

Conducted by the University Extension, University of California, San Diego, Courses by Newspaper serves three audiences: the reader interested simply in the newspaper article, the one who wants to explore the topic further and obtains an inexpensive supplementary reader and study guide, and the reader who wants college credit for the course.

Some Criticisms of Mastery Learning

By **PATRICK GROFF**
Professor of Education, San Diego State University.

In the November-December 1973 issue of Today's Education, *James H. Block, assistant professor of education at the University of California, Santa Barbara, wrote a favorable article on mastery learning, with special emphasis on Benjamin Bloom's views on the subject. The Block article prompted the following one by Dr. Groff, which presents his viewpoint regarding this controversial plan.*

Mastery learning is one of the plans proposed by educationists who believe in behaviorist psychology. Whether this remarkable conception of teachers and teaching will fundamentally reshape school practices, as some of its proponents claim, is uncertain. What is certain to me, however, is that several of its proposals are shocking.

The proponents of mastery learning base their plan for revising teacher behavior on the notion that under the classroom conditions they prescribe, virtually all students will learn so well they will "master" any subject. Advocates claim that almost all students will learn to the level of A if teachers are willing to give them all the help they need—enough time to learn, smaller learning units, biweekly "prescriptive" tests, and "alternative" learning materials (with which to relearn the parts of the prescriptive tests they fail).

Moreover, if these rules are followed, it is pledged, teachers will find that they need not lower their usual high standards for A. Nor will the construction of these tests and alternative materials be a burdensome task. According to Block, a small group of teachers can concoct a year's supply of these by working "two to three hours a day for just a few weeks."

The conventional view that some students show more aptitude than others for certain subjects is therefore wrong, mastery learning charges. In explaining Bloom's strategy, Block states that if the conditions of mastery learning are established, "there should be little or no relationship between [student] aptitude and achievement" regardless of the difficulty of a course of study.

Obviously, these glittering promises of success for all students seem too good to be true. It is of some importance, then, to pause and scrutinize the merits of this scheme. Is mastery learning, as it now stands, the solution to the woes of poor learning that plague today's schools? Should we accept this radical interpretation of teaching on the basis of its own declared merits? I think not, for the following reasons.

So far, mastery learning has not presented the empirical evidence necessary to convince reasonable-minded teachers that all students have the same aptitude for learning every subject. This basic tenet of mastery learning defies the classroom experience of most teachers and contradicts the readings they have done in the scientific litera-

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(Continued from page 88)

ture on human differences. Surely, it will take more than out-of-hand assurances to change teachers' beliefs that students' past grades, their measured intelligence, and their attitudes toward teachers and school are all beside the point—which is supposedly the situation that exists when mastery learning rules pertain.

Then, it is something of a slur on the work habits of present-day teachers to aver that hidden away in the normal school day is an unused deposit of teacher time, the extra time necessary if teachers using mastery learning strategies are to give students *all the time* the students need to learn to mastery.

In addition, it will appear farfetched to most teachers that all subjects can be reduced to the point that any student can learn them to mastery. For example, if we are to believe this, mathematics and science, always considered intellectually "hard" courses, can be rendered intellectually "soft." Teachers' experiences as students and as teachers cry out against this conjecture.

It also seems overly optimistic to assume that constructing learning units and alternative learning materials is an easy task and thus will pose no special problem for the average teacher. Equally doubtful is the notion that it is easy to write prescriptive tests used to diagnose the learning problems of students and to indicate what alternative material they then need. Commercial publishing companies have shown they have had their least success in producing these kinds of diagnostic tools for use with students.

Mastery learning does not explain how the teacher would know in advance how many or what kinds of these superattractive alternative learning materials the students would need. Or, more importantly, why such successful materials, if so easily put together, would not have been made available for students on their first attempt to learn a subject.

Disagreeable, too, are the apparent contradictions expressed by advocates of mastery learning in regard to the voice students should have in matters of curriculum.

Mastery learning demands, on the one hand, that teachers determine in rigorous detail and in objective and measurable terms precisely what performance they will demand if students are to earn an A. In Block's words, the teacher "must not only determine what ought to be so in his classroom, but he must also get used to making these thoughts explicit in how and what he teaches."

Block claims, on the other hand, that in spite of these strict teacher controls, students can be involved in a great deal of two-way communication about what they should study. Supposedly they will "perceive themselves as belonging" in ways never before possible in conventional classes. Quite obviously, these are conflicting statements. Those who push for mastery learning must be willing to come to terms with such inconsistencies.

The manner in which behaviorists who favor mastery learning contend subject matter should be taught is also in question. They say subjects must be broken up into closely defined bits of information rewritten as behavioral objectives. These objectives, set into a predetermined order of teaching, must be written so that no misinterpretation of them is possible. When students learn enough of these pieces of static information, they are said to have achieved mastery. In this process, students disregard any information that does not directly apply to the behavioral objective in question. The teacher regulates this by telling students in advance exactly what they will be tested on.

There is no demonstrable evidence, however, that behavioral objectives are better than the traditional goals of education. According to Herbert D. Simons in the January 1973 issue of the *Elementary School Journal,* the degree to which they specify behavior is not a valid determiner of student learning. Then, research on their relative effectiveness "is to say the least inconsistent," say Phillippe C. Duchastel and Paul F. Merrill in the Winter 1973 *Review of Educational Research.* Further, there is doubt that behavioral objectives have greater potential for fostering retained learning than does ordinary methodology. In sum, the extra effort it takes to write behavioral objectives may indeed be futile.

Another danger inherent in mastery learning is one that threatens the mental health of students. Note the bait mastery learning offers students who fail: Try one more time and you will master it. For students truly unable to cope with a certain subject (there are such students, mastery learning notwithstanding), this "encouragement" is just one more signal of their "inferiority."

Picture an inner-city primary teacher convinced by mastery learning doctrine that all pupils can and should learn to read and spell to the level of mastery (to grade level at least). As this supposition inevitably proves false, the teacher's guilt and feelings of defeat and frustration are bound to mount. Doubtless these feelings would be transferred to the pupils, who would also be traumatized. Obviously, students subjected to such irresponsible goals could develop long-lasting negative attitudes toward school.

A last (but far from least) unpleasing aspect of mastery learning is the fact that it aims to im-

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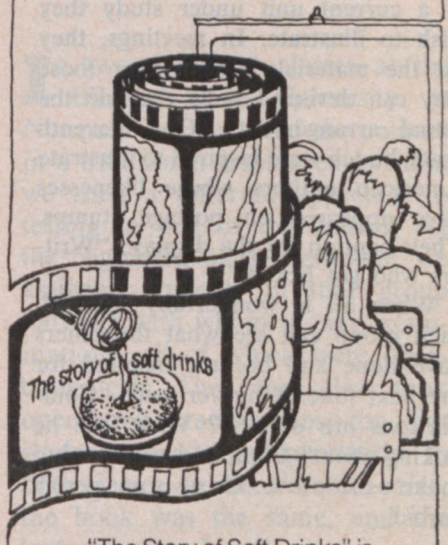

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Mastery Learning

(Continued from page 90)

pose yet another behavioristic doctrine on the schools. As with previous such doctrines, which have come and gone, it announces a simple set of rules that will overcome low school achievement and its attendant problems. As with all such doctrines, however, mastery learning underestimates the complex nature of the teaching act. For instance, we still have few answers to the question of what behavioral skills a teacher must possess to be successful.

For the reasons cited above, it is highly doubtful that the special kind of applied classroom mechanics offered by mastery learning is the final solution for teachers and teaching. Teachers are likely to continue to believe that teaching is as much an act of personal fulfillment and artistic endeavor as it is the peculiar code of behavior demanded by mastery learning.

The quiet resistance of teachers to the formulas of teaching doctrines has always resulted in the downfall of the doctrines. In my opinion, mastery learning is doomed to suffer the same fate. □

For Further Reading

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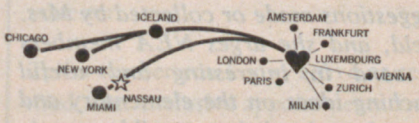

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CLASSROOM

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Hilltop High School, Chula Vista, California.

This is the second in a continuing feature on classroom tips. These are suggestions made or collected by Mrs. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary level for possible use in future issues. Mail suggestions to Box IE, Today's Education, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

A big problem in any relationship between students and teacher is getting the students to want to learn what they are supposed to know. Whoever first said, "You can lead a horse to water . . . ," obviously was a frustrated teacher.

Here are some ideas that might induce the unthirsty to drink.

Games are useful tools at any grade level. As part of the summing up of a history unit, such as the Civil War or the Age of Discovery and Exploration, the game Who (or What) am I? can be relevant and it can be fun.

Each student prepares a series of clues about a famous person, battle, or event previously covered in the unit. He or she then reads the clues to the class, and they try to guess who or what is being described.

In science, the clues might have to do with the elements or types of soil; in English, the parts of speech or the characters in a novel. In music appreciation, the clues might cover instruments, composers, or compositions.

If knowledge of other cultures is a subject goal, have students interview family members, friends, or neighbors who have immigrated to the United States.

First, have the class decide what to ask about the countries left behind: questions perhaps about flowers, birds, animals, the lay of the land, weather, kinds of food. Questions about buildings and furniture, about entertainment, transportation, and roads. Questions about what the immigrants miss the most and what they miss the least.

The answers should arouse empathy in both questioners and those questioned. Above all, the interviews should reveal yet again that people, including kids, are human no matter where they live.

The Crayon, Water Color, and Craft Institute of Newtown, Connecticut, offers suggestions to develop creativity and at the same time recycle materials. One result can be an original jigsaw puzzle.

To make the puzzle and a duplicate picture to serve as a guide in assembling it, cut away two sides of a corrugated paper carton with a sharp craft knife. Then use tempera to paint identical pictures on the two sides. Spray both pictures with a protective coating to fix the paint.

Brush several coats of clear shellac or polymer medium on both sides of each painting, allowing them to dry between coats. Now, using the knife or a jigsaw, cut one of the pictures into puzzle-size pieces. (Keep in mind that jigsaws and craft knives are both very dangerous. Younger children should not use them, and older children should use them only under adult supervision.)

Bulletin boards are the visual outer limits of the students' world while they are within the schoolroom. Great splashy displays are delightful, but teachers shouldn't leave them up forever. What is beautiful on the first day of school may have become a bore three weeks later and, by December, an object of hate.

Many students enjoy decorating bulletin boards. To relate their creativity to their studies and to get those boards covered too, first divide the class into committees. Assign a section of the board or an entire one, depending on the amount of bulletin board space in the room, to each.

The groups then decide what area of a current unit under study they wish to illustrate. In meetings, they list the materials available or those they can devise. Finally they do the actual arrangement. (One eleventh grade bunch were inspired to illustrate American authors whose likenesses have appeared on postage stamps. Their caption for the display: "Writers who got licked.")

When all is wonderfully finished, each group can see what the others have done and become inspired for the next time. Whoever said, "Comparisons are odious"? What was he talking about? Comparisons are what make us improve. Or give up, perish forbid.

Is teaching *The Scarlet Letter* necessary? Probably not. However, if it is in the curriculum, and there is much to be said for its inclusion, especially when examining the Puritan ethic, here's a suggestion that may get reluctant readers started.

After they read the first three chapters, ask them to draw or paint the setting of those chapters, putting all the characters mentioned in their proper places. That's practically everyone in the book.

High school kids love to draw. Just look at the tops of their desks! And this directive forces them to concentrate on Hawthorne's words, at least for three chapters.

Display the best pictures. Make stars out of some teenagers who may never have shone before in English.

Creative writing in the first grade? What age has more imagination? Verna Clay, of Brier Patch School in La Mesa, California, was inspired by her youngsters' gappy smiles to ask what the tooth fairy does with all the teeth she collects. Aided by key words on the board, the more mature tots wrote charming responses. Among them: She gives them to God for new babies, plants them in her garden to become pearly flowers, and makes them into jewelry for party gifts to other fairies.

A DIFFERENT APPROACH TO CLASSROOM TESTING

In two sociology classes at the Illinois State University at Normal, we structured the courses in a traditional fashion except that we tried a different approach to testing in one of the classes. At the beginning of the semester, we assigned students in that group partners with whom to take examinations, all of which were open-book tests. The other class took open-book examinations, too, but students worked independently. In both classes, exams were the same, the book was the same, and the lectures were based on the same materials.

Partners had similar accumulated grade point averages (within one-half a GPA unit). Partnerships could be broken if either party felt the other was not cooperating or not doing adequate preparation for the class. Only three of the 30 pairs eventually broke up.

The result of this matching process was a situation in which each student was able to confer with a partner throughout the examination. They could exchange ideas and make decisions about answers. Then, the students recorded their joint answers on the test paper.

Interaction between pair members was not continuous, and students usually carried on their discussions in an undertone. Occasionally, a student raised a voice in disagreement, but no one complained of the noise level.

What were the results? The paired students performed significantly better than those who took examinations alone. On all three exams, the paired group averaged 6 percent higher scores than the unpaired group. Also, 85 percent of the paired students indicated that pairing reduced their test anxiety, and 69 percent felt that the paired setting was a better learning one than the singles setting.

We would not have been surprised to find that two A students would do better on an exam working together than working alone and that two C students working together would show some improvement. What was not expected, however, was that two C students working together would do as well as or better than two A students working independently. The two students with the lowest grade point averages in the paired group obtained the second highest grade on the first exam and the fifth highest grade on the final. Interestingly, they earned the lowest grades on the second exam, which was taken in singles style.

On the basis of this one small experiment, we believe that—with a relatively small investment of money and/or time—improvements for many students can be made in the classroom. Students respond well to social settings where cooperation in problem solving is possible. They also react well to challenging situations that are not too threatening.

There is no reason to suspect that this approach would not work in any of the traditional teaching-learning situations. High school or junior high school classes might benefit even more than college groups from this method. ☐

—James J. Berry, *assistant professor of sociology, Western State College, Gunnison, Colorado; and* **Wilbert M. Leonard, II,** *assistant professor of sociology, Illinois State University, Normal.*

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PICTURE BOOKS

Black Is Brown Is Tan. Arnold Adoff. Illus. by Emily Arnold McCully. A loving depiction of an interracial family. Harper. Unp. $4.95. Ages 4-8.

Fresh Cider and Pie. Franz Brandenberg. Illus. by Aliki. A spider who has a fly in her net grants the fly's last wish for cider and pie, only to let her prey escape while she gorges herself. Macmillan. Unp. $4.95. Ages 4-6.

All Us Come Cross the Water. Lucille Clifton. Illus. by John Steptoe. A boy discovers his origins in Africa. Holt. 32 pp. $5.95. Ages 5-9.

Nana Upstairs and Nana Downstairs. Tomie de Paola. Illus. by author. Old age and death is sensitively explored in this story of the friendship between a 90-year-old woman and her four-year-old great grandson. Putnam. 32 pp. $3.95. Ages 4-8.

Na-Ni. Alexis Deveaux. Illus. by author. A girl's dream of a bike is shattered when her mother's welfare check is stolen. Harper. 43 pp. $3.50. Ages 6-9.

Pssst! Doggie. Ezra Jack Keats. Illus. by author. Cat and Dog dance their way around the world in a wordless picture book. Watts. Unp. $4.95. Ages 4-8.

The Supreme, Superb, Exalted and Delightful, One and Only Magic Building. William Kotzwinkle. Illus. by Joe Servello. Stunning woodcuts illuminate an Eastern allegorical tale. Farrar. 36 pp. $5.95. Ages 8-11.

Whizz! Edward Lear. Pictures by Janina Domanska. Extravagantly gay illustrations accompany six limericks. Macmillan. 32 pp. $4.95. Ages 4-8.

A Birthday for the Princess. Anita Lobel. Illus. by author. A charming story about a lonely princess. 1974 CBS*. Harper. Unp. $5.95. Ages 5-8.

Yummers! James Marshall. Illus. by author. The walk pudgy Emily Pig took for exercise offered too many temptations to achieve its purpose. Houghton. 30 pp. $3.95. Ages 4-6.

Who, Said Sue, Said Whoo? Ellen Raskin. Illus. by author. A nonsensical tongue-twisting rhymed story all about mysterious sounds in the jungle. 1974 CBS*. Atheneum. 32 pp. $4.95. Ages 4-6.

My Doctor. Harlow Rockwell. Illus. by author. A boy finds his visit to the doctor (a woman) reassuring. Macmillan. Unp. $4.95. Ages 3-5.

The Day the Circus Came to Lone Tree. Glen Rounds. Illus. by author. A funny story about the townspeople and cowboys who try to help the lady lion trainer by lassoing the lions. Holiday House. Unp. $3.95. Ages 6-9.

A Day Off. Tobi Tobias. Illus. by Ray Cruz. A schoolboy savors a "day off sick." Putnam. Unp. $3.86. Ages 5-8.

A Great Big Ugly Man Came Up and Tied His Horse to Me. Wallace Tripp, compiler and illustrator. A collection of short nonsense verse. Little. 48 pp. $5.95. Ages 4-8.

Elephant Buttons. Noriko Ueno. Illus. by author. A wordless picture book that begins with a toy elephant buttoned down the front and proceeds to a series of surprises and a final page that all ages will appreciate. Harper. 32 pp. $3.50. Ages 3-up.

Benjamin and Tulip. Rosemary Wells. Illus. by author. "Sweet Little Tulip" beats Benjy up in an amusingly told and illustrated tale of children's animosities and truces. Dial. Unp. $3.95. Ages 4-6.

Janey. Charlotte Zolotow. Illus. by Ronald Himler. The special sadness of a girl whose best friend has moved away. Harper. 24 pp. $3.95. Ages 4-8.

PICTURE-BOOK FOLKLORE

It's Raining Said John Twaining. N. M. Bodecker, compiler and illustrator. A delightfully illustrated selection of Danish nursery rhymes. Atheneum. 32 pp. $4.95. Ages 3-8.

Harlequin and the Gift of Many Colors. Remy Charlip and Burton Supree. Illus. by Remy Charlip. A pleasant version of the Harlequin story. Parents. 48 pp. $4.50. Ages 5-8.

King Grisly-Beard. Grimm Brothers. Pictures by Maurice Sendak. A clever new setting for a familiar tale. Text from an 1823 edition. 1974 CBS*. Farrar. 24 pp. $3.95. Ages 4-8.

The Two Magicians. John Langstaff, compiler. Pictures by Fritz Eichenberg. A lively adaptation of an old song about the magical metamorphosis of two opponents. With piano accompaniment and guitar chords. Atheneum (a Margaret K. McElderry Book). 32 pp. $4.95. Ages 4-8.

The Magic Tree, a Tale from the Congo. Gerald McDermott. Illus. by author. Twin boys and the changes in their lives brought about by magic. Based on the animated film by this author-illustrator. Holt. 48 pp. $5.95. Ages 5-8.

Three Jovial Huntsmen. Mother Goose. Illus. by Susan Jeffers. Cleverly illustrated with softly tinted woodland views in which the animals are camouflaged with unusual effects. Caldecott Honor Book. Bradbury. 32 pp. $5.95. Ages 5-7.

King Stork. Howard Pyle. Illus. by Trina Schart Hyman. A peasant wins and reforms a princess who is a witch. Little. 48 pp. $5.95. Ages 4-8.

The Magician. Uri Shulevitz. Illus. by author. A folktale adapted from the Yiddish of I. L. Peretz in which a poor old couple entertains Elijah in the guise of a magician at Passover. 1974 CBS*. Macmillan. 32 pp. $3.95. Ages 5-8.

Petronella. Jay Williams. Illus. by Friso Henstra. In this satirical fairy tale, a daughter breaks tradition by rescuing a prince! 1974 CBS*. 40 pp. $4.50. Ages 4-8.

Duffy and the Devil: A Cornish Tale. Harve Zemach. Illus. by Margot Zemach. Distinctive illustrations and flavorful text. 1974 Caldecott Award. 1974 CBS*. Farrar. 40 pp. $5.95. Ages 5-8.

OTHER FOLKLORE AND FANTASY

Behind the Back of the Mountain: Black Folktales from Southern Africa. Verna Aardema. Illus. by Leo and Diane Dillon. Retold from the lore of African tribes. 1974 CBS*. Dial. 85 pp. $4.95. Ages 9-14.

The Cat Who Wished To Be a Man. Lloyd Alexander. A delightful, original fantasy. Dutton. 107 pp. $4.95. Ages 9-12.

At the Center of the World. Betty Baker. Illus. by Murray Tinkelman. Creation myths of Arizona and Northern Mexican Indians. Macmillan. 53 pp. $4.95. Ages 8-12.

The House with a Clock in Its Walls. John Bellairs. Pictures by Edward Gorey. Ironic humor well-matched with Gorey's distinctive drawings. Dial. 160 pp. $4.95. Ages 9-12.

The Court of the Stone Children. Eleanor Cameron. An unusual, thought-provoking fantasy. 1974 National Book Award. Dutton. 119 pp. $5.50. Ages 10-14.

The Enchanted Orchard and Other

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Folktales of Central America. Dorothy Sharp Carter, editor. Illus. by W. T. Mars. Myths, legends, animal tales, humorous stories. Harcourt. 126 pp. $4.75. Ages 10-14.

Conjure Tales. Charles W. Chesnutt. Retold by Ray Anthony Shepard. Illus. by John Ross and Clare Romano. Retelling of voodoo stories from the 1899 book, *The Conjure Woman.* Dutton. 112 pp. $4.95. Ages 9-up.

The Dark Is Rising. Susan Cooper. Illus. by Alan E. Cober. Will Stanton finds out that he is one of the Old Ones of ancient Celtic tradition. Newbery Honor Book. Atheneum (a Margaret K. McElderry Book). 232 pp. $5.95. Ages 9-14.

Eskimo Songs and Stories. Edward Field, compiler. Illus. by Kiakshuk and Pudlo. Poems and stories retold from the official records of Knud Rasmussen's Fifth Thule Expedition. Delacorte/Seymour Lawrence. 102 pp. $6.95. Ages 8-up.

The Juniper Tree and Other Tales from Grimm. Grimm Brothers. Translations by Lore Segal and Randall Jarrell. Pictures by Maurice Sendak. A memorable publishing event for all ages. 1974 CBS*. Farrar. 2 vols. $12.95.

The Other World. Margaret Hodges. Illus. by Eros Keith. Ten stories retold from Irish, Scottish, Cornish, and Welsh myths and hero tales. Farrar. 176 pp. $5.95. Ages 8-12.

Children of Morrow. H. M. Hoover. Adventures of two children in a world of the future. Four Winds. 229 pp. $4.95. Ages 10-14.

Kiviok's Magic Journey. James Houston. Illus. by author. How Kiviok, an Eskimo folk hero, befriended and married the Snow Goose Maiden. Atheneum. Unp. $5.25. Ages 6-9.

The Endless Pavement. Jacqueline Jackson and William Perlmutter. Illus. by Richard Cuffari. A satirical fantasy about a child living in a controlled and automated society. Seabury. 45 pp. $4.95. Ages 10-14.

The Throme of the Errill of Sherill. Patricia A. McKillip. Illus. by Julie Noonan. A fairy tale about the quest for a nonexistent object. 1974 CBS*. Atheneum. 69 pp. $4.95. Ages 10-14.

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(Continued on page 96)

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In the Company of Clowns. Martha Bacon. Illus. by Richard Cuffari. An eighteenth-century Italian foundling joins a troupe of traveling actors. Little (an Atlantic Monthly Press Book). 176 pp. $5.95. Ages 11-14.

Me Too. Vera and Bill Cleaver. The story of Lydia and Lorna, 12-year-old twins, one normal, one handicapped. Lippincott. 158 pp. $5.95. Ages 12-14.

The Slave Dancer. Paula Fox. Illus. by Eros Keith. This 1974 Newbery Award book gives a compelling view of the horrors of slavery. Bradbury. 176 pp. $5.95. Ages 11-12.

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Lands End. Mary Stolz. Drawings by Dennis Hermanson. A lonely 12-year-old boy tries to puzzle out the contradictions of modern life. Harper. 208 pp. $5.95. Ages 10-up.

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Toolchest: A Primer of Woodcraft. Jan Adkins. Designed and illus. by author. Precise, practical, and graphically satisfying. 1974 CBS*. Walker. 48 pp. $4.95. Ages 9-up.

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A Little Book of Little Beasts. Mary Ann Hoberman. Illus. by Peter Parnall. Verses about small animals. Simon and Schuster. 48 pp. $4.50. Ages 4-8.

The Raucous Auk. Mary Ann Hoberman. Illus. by Joseph Low. Rhymes about birds, beasts, fish, and insects. Viking. 48 pp. $4.95. Ages 5-8.

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A Prairie Boy's Winter. William Kurelek. Illus. by author. The beauty of a snowy farm on the American prairie a generation ago. 1974 CBS*. Houghton. Unp. $5.95. Ages 9-12.

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Cathedral. David Macaulay. Illus. by author. Step-by-step account of the building of the imaginary Gothic Cathedral of Chutreaux. Caldecott Honor Book and 1974 CBS*. Houghton. 80 pp. $6.95. Ages 10-up.

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Talking Drums of Africa. Christine Price. Illus. by author. How these drums are made, who plays them, and what dramatic effects can be produced with them. Scribner. 48 pp. $5.95. Ages 8-12.

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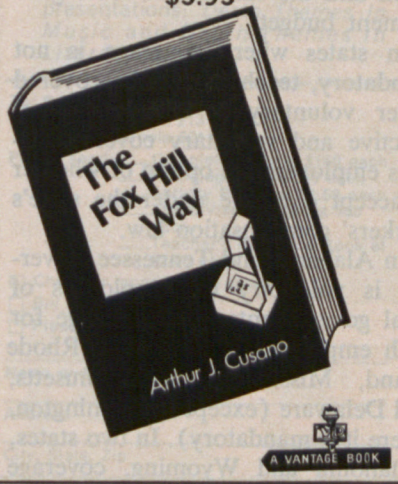

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Although it is generally believed that teachers are excluded from these programs, by January 1975, public school teachers and faculty at public higher education institutions in fact must be covered in 42 states, plus the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico. Missouri and Kansas, for example, have recently passed legislation requiring coverage for teachers employed by state or local governments. In addition, faculty at state higher education institutions in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Texas are covered. In Georgia and Texas, coverage is compulsory, depending respectively on the size of the population and the size of the local government budget.

In states where coverage is not mandatory, teachers may be covered under voluntary or elective plans. Elective and voluntary coverage allows employers the option of whether to accept coverage under the state's workers' compensation law.

In Alabama and Tennessee, coverage is voluntary for employees of local governments, and coverage for such employees is elective in Rhode Island, Mississippi, Massachusetts, and Delaware (except in Wilmington, where it is mandatory). In two states, Oklahoma and Wyoming, coverage is compulsory only for employees in "extra hazardous" occupations.

In states where coverage is elective and local school boards and/or state colleges and universities don't elect a workers' compensation plan, employees may obtain relief by suing for damages under common law theories in which proof of negligence will be required. When they employ workers, employers under the common law assume certain risks including liability for injury due to negligence of other employees and contributory breach of duty.

The trend, however, is to give employees prompt and timely relief under no-fault workers' compensation systems. In 1972, the National Commission on State Workmen's Compensation Laws, established by the Congress in 1970, issued a report recommending substantial improvements in state programs including compulsory coverage, adequate weekly benefits (in 1973, maximum temporary disability benefits ranged from $62 in Tennessee to $210.54 in Washington, DC), full benefits for work-related diseases, and improved medical and rehabilitation services. Moreover, in 1973, the Council of State Governments echoed these concerns, calling for all employers to be liable for compensating employees. Compensable work-related injuries and diseases, both the Council and Commission recommended, should be determined by the test of "arising out [of] and in the course of employment" rather than by the test of personal injury caused by negligence. The majority of state compensation laws do cover occupational diseases; however, in general, benefits are smaller than those for injury or accidental disability.

In California, teachers are filing claims for workers' compensation benefits for a variety of occupational disabilities. With assistance from United Teachers of Los Angeles (UTLA) lawyers who are experts in workers' compensation law, Los Angeles teachers, for example, are obtaining these benefits if they can prove a relationship between their work situation and their physical or emotional condition.

These include, but are not limited to, such conditions as cardiac conditions, hypertension, ulcers, strokes, diabetes, pulmonary embolisms and psychiatric disorders wherein the emotional stress and strain of working in the classroom aggravates a latent condition, causing symptoms to emerge. Other disabilities include laryngitis, varicose veins, loss of hearing because of noise in the metal shop, bunions, and injuries incurred on the job such as back injuries.

Communicable diseases arising from teaching assignments can include hepatitis and tuberculosis, as well as mumps and other childhood diseases. One pregnant teacher was compensated for a therapeutic abortion after contracting German measles. These examples suggest possible benefits for which teachers in all states might be able to file.

Although legal consultation is not required to process a claim (under workers' compensation, an employee simply reports the injury to the employer in order to activate the compensation procedures), in reality, legal advice is helpful to facilitate the process. With such aid, the teacher is not unequally pitted against the defense of the employing school district and the profit-motivated insurance company.

NEA Teacher Rights suggests that teachers with work-related diseases and disabilities confer with state associations and/or UniServ staff to obtain legal assistance in filing claims, obtaining enforcement of coverage, and adjudicating contested claims. Information on the law and procedures in a specific state may be obtained from the state's workers' compensation agency or its department of labor.

—DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights.

"Right. Those are the supplies I ordered two years ago for my second grade class. This year I am teaching the eighth grade."

"I get the feeling he's trying to tell us something."

FOR YOUR INFORMATION

James A. Harris, NEA President; Terry Herndon, NEA Executive Secretary.

NEA memberships and annual dues: Active, $25. Associate, $12.50. Paraprofessional, $12.50. Educational Secretary, $12.50. Student, $3.50 through Student NEA Chapters only. Retired, $5 (those retired before 9/1/73 continue at $2). Staff, $12.50.

For further information about NEA membership, write to NEA Membership Records, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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HUMAN RELATIONS DAY ACTIVITIES

The observance of holidays in the classroom should provide children with a sense of our cultural heritage and a personal experience for understanding that heritage.

Most holidays provide children with only limited understanding of the contributions made by the diversity of racial and ethnic groups in our society.

Recognizing the need for providing *all* children with an appreciation of the contributions of *all* groups and the need to observe recent historical events, the 1970 NEA Representative Assembly—and each succeeding one—called for the observance of January 15 as a national holiday in memory of Martin Luther King.

NEA observes January 15, the birthday of Dr. King, as Human Relations Day and urges teachers and school systems to plan activities that promote understanding and appreciation of the multiethnic heritage of our nation.

Teachers can involve students in activities that foster appreciation of racial and ethnic groups in a number of ways or, better yet, can include the observance of Human Relations Day as part of a unit on multiethnic studies. Listed below are some suggestions for possible classroom use.

Reading. Ask students to read about the life of Dr. King. Have them discuss the role of Dr. King and the Civil Rights Movement in terms of increasing opportunities for minority groups and the extent to which Dr. King's goals have been accomplished or continue to be targets for change. Ask students to give their views about: (a) problems Dr. King was trying to correct, (b) why Dr. King is recognized as a world leader, (c) how his work and ideals can be carried on, and (d) what he would be saying if he were still living.

Role-Playing. Provide students with information about the events leading up to the Montgomery, Alabama, bus boycott. Ask students to role-play scenes in the desegregation of the buses. Make sure students attempt to portray the thoughts and feelings of the persons involved, e.g., Rosa Parks, the bus driver, Dr. King, and other bus passengers.

Students can use this technique to explore similar events which are important to other ethnic groups, e.g., Cesar Chavez organizing farmworkers in a field in California, students on their first bus ride to a recently integrated school.

Making a Mural. Tape a large sheet of paper to a wall. Ask students to draw or paint scenes from Dr. King's life. Students could develop a second mural depicting possible scenes from their lives when they have acted to protect their own rights or the rights of others.

Making Bulletin Boards. Have students prepare multiethnic displays on bulletin boards. Students may wish to highlight the history of racial and ethnic minorities, such as Asian Americans, Blacks, Cubans, Mexican Americans, Native Americans, and Puerto Ricans.

Teachers can incorporate the development of bulletin boards into classroom activities by asking groups to plan and prepare new bulletin boards at regular intervals. They can guide students in identifying resources, carrying out research, and planning and implementing the design of bulletin boards.

Designing Collages. Have students collect a supply of old magazines, including such ethnic magazines as *Ebony, Jet,* and *La Luz* (a relatively new English-language magazine for Americans of Hispanic descent). Then have the students use pictures from the magazines to make a collage depicting the diversity of groups in their community.

When students complete the collage, have them discuss the following questions: (a) Did we include all groups in the community? If not, why? (b) How can we learn more about our community? (c) How well does our school represent the groups found in the community? and (d) How can our school reach out to involve the community?

Another collage activity that would be appropriate is making a what-it-means-to-be collage. For Human Relations Day, the class could use pictures from old magazines to create what-it-means-to-be-a-Black collages.

Then each child can explain his or her collage. Why did the child select particular pictures? What does the symbolism depicted in the collage mean? How similar are the ideas represented by various members of the class? How different are the ideas?

Students can use the same technique to prepare a what-it-means-to-be-a-Native-American collage, what-it-means-to-be-a-Mexican-American collage, and so on.

Brainstorming. This is a technique for generating ideas and encouraging creativity. Before starting a brainstorming session, the teacher should urge students to suggest any idea that occurs to them and explain that no one may evaluate or comment about the ideas until the end of the session. As students make suggestions, someone should write them on the board.

Examples of subjects that could be used for brainstorming are: (a) how we could carry on Martin Luther King's ideals, (b) what we can do about biased textbooks in our classroom, (c) how we can improve human relations in our school, and (d) how we can improve human relations in our neighborhood.

—*NEA Teacher Rights.*

NEA Continuing Resolution 20:

The National Education Association believes that the attention of the people of the nation should be focused on the importance of human relations during special activities at least one day each year. It recommends that state associations urge their governors to proclaim January 15 as "Human Relations Day," in memory of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. The Association calls upon the President of the United States to proclaim January 15 a national holiday. The Association encourages its affiliates and all school systems to plan observances on this date that will promote good-will among men.

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TAHITI

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AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

The following 16mm sound, color films are recommended by Carolyn Guss, Indiana University, Audio-Visual Center, as representative of those available on the topic of creative processes. For further information about these films, contact the producers/distributors indicated by the number in parentheses after each listing.

Animules. 11 min. Demonstrates how to make imaginary animals, or "animules," out of common materials such as paper, paste, wire, string, and paints. Grades 3-8. (4)

Donald in Mathmagic Land. 28 min. Uses cartoon characters to illustrate the mathematical basis of music, architecture, sculpture, and painting. Grades 6-9. (8)

Pozzatti. 30 min. Provides a close look at the works and creative philosophy of Rudy Pozzatti, a printmaker who borrows themes from classical antiquity to interpret contemporary events. Grades 9-12. (3)

A Rag Tapestry by 25 Children. 11 min. Demonstrates the application of design, color, and techniques in a rag tapestry produced by children at a workshop at New York's Metropolitan Museum of Art. Grades 4-6. (5)

Rhythmetron with the Dance Theatre at Harlem and Arthur Mitchell. 40 min. Relates ballet and contemporary dance to life through demonstration and performance. Grades 4-12. (6)

Teenagers Create an Animated Film. 9 min. Focuses on such aspects as story sequence, painting pictures, using movable figures, filming, lighting, editing, and providing sound. Grades 7-10. (2)

What Is Poetry? 9 min. Recreates pictorially Karl Shapiro's poem, "Auto Wreck," to show the vastly

(Continued on page 102)

"If, when I entered a classroom and said, 'Good morning,' my students responded, 'Good morning,' I knew they were undergraduates, but if they took out their notebooks and wrote down my greeting, I knew they were graduate students."

—Mortimer Adler, *former professor, University of Chicago.*

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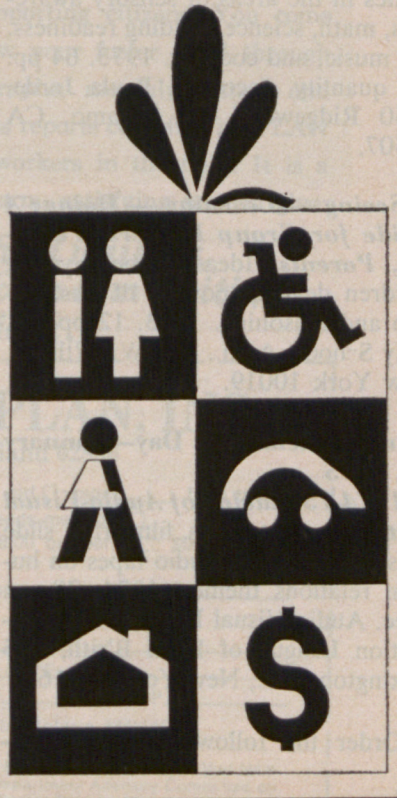

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FREE OR INEXPENSIVE

Elementary

Order the following from the Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437.

Activities That Teach Health. Revised ed. 1974. 48 pp. $1.50.

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Improving Listening Skills. Revised ed. 1974. 48 pp. $1.50.

70 Activities for Classroom Learning Centers. 1974. 48 pp. $1.50.

Social Studies and Science Activities with the Tape Recorder. 1974. 48 pp. $1.50.

Your Art Idea Book. Revised ed. 1973. 48 pp. $1.50.

Green Fun: Instant Toys, Tricks, and Amusements Anyone Can Make from Common Weeds, Seeds, Leaves, and Flowering Things. Illustrated with photographs. 1974. 80 pp. $1.95. Chatham Press, Inc., 15 Wilmot Lane, Riverside, CT 06878.

Living and Learning with Children: A Handbook of Activities for Children from Three to Six. Activities in the areas of sensory awareness, math, science, reading readiness, art, music, and cooking. 1973. 64 pp. $2; quantity discounts. Paula Jorde, 2050 Ridgewood Rd., Alamo, CA 94507.

Seeing — Learning — Doing: A Guide for Group Leaders, Teachers, Parents. Ideas to help young children develop powers of observation and reasoning. 1973. 12 pp. $1. Play Schools Assn., 120 W. 57th St., New York 10019.

Human Relations Day—January 15, 1975

1974-75 Catalog of Audio-Visual Materials. Lists films, filmstrips, slide presentations, and audio tapes on human relations themes. 1974. 70 pp. Free. Audio-Visual Dept., Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Ave., New York 10016.

Order the following from UNA-USA, Publications Orders, 345 E. 46th St., New York 10017. Minimum order: $2 plus postage.

International Covenants on Human Rights. 1967. 25¢

Universal Declaration of Human Rights. 1968. 25¢ each; 20 for $1; 100 for $4.

The Rights of Students. Directed primarily to students in secondary schools. An American Civil Liberties Union handbook. 1974. 160 pp. 95¢. ACLU, 22 E. 40 St., New York 10016.

Order the following set from the *Children and Intercultural Education* series from the Assn. of Childhood Education Intl., 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20016. 1974. $2.95 for the set.

Some Minorities Speak Out. 12 pp.

Overview and Research. 32 pp.

Are There Unwelcome Guests in Your Classroom? 70 pp.

Teachers and Teaching

Classroom Psychology. Presents procedures for creating an optimal learning climate. 1974. 72 pp. $1.95. Book-Lab, Inc., 1449 37th St., Brooklyn, NY 11218.

Order the following books in National Humanities Faculty *Why* series from Chandler & Sharp Publishers, Inc., 5609 Paradise Dr., Corte Madera, CA 94925. 1973. $1.75 each; $7.50 for the set.

Why Talk? A discussion of language. 40 pp.

Why Re-create? Discusses need to understand what people of other cultures are saying and tells how to recognize a good translation. 34 pp.

Why Pretend? Analyzes people's desire to play-act and uses to which this desire can be put in the classroom. 34 pp.

Why Remember? A discussion about history. Specific suggestions for effective classroom teaching. 34 pp.

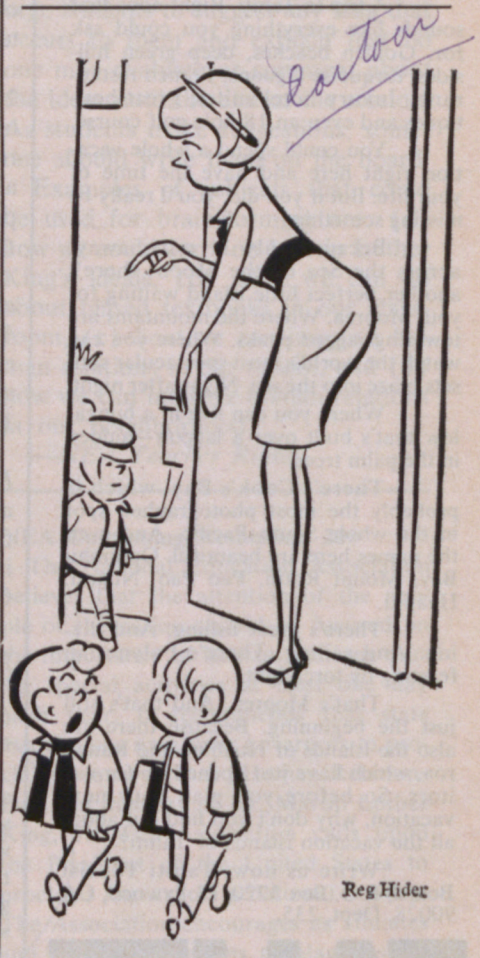
Why Pop? Discusses popular culture. 30 pp.

Audiovisual Materials
(Continued)

different approaches of the journalist and the poet in describing the same event. Grades 6-12. (1)

Why Man Creates. 25 min. Examines the organization of ideas, the creative process, and aesthetic criticism. Grades 7-12. (7)

Producers or distributors: (1) Bailey Film Associates, 2211 Michigan Ave., Santa Monica, CA 90404. (2) Centron Educational Films, 1621 W. 9th St., Lawrence, KS 66044. (3) Indiana University, Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, IN 47401. (4) Intl. Film Bureau, 332 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, IL 60604. (5) Intl. Film Foundation, 475 5th Ave., New York 10017. (6) McGraw Hill Films, 1221 Ave. of the Americas, New York 10020. (7) Pyramid Films, P.O. Box 1048, Santa Monica, CA 90406. (8) Walt Disney Educational Media Co., 800 Sonora Ave., Glendale, CA 91202.



"I never saw anyone so all 'teach, teach, teach.'"

BOOKS

About Behaviorism by **B. F. Skinner.** Knopf. 256 pp. $6.95.

The purpose of this book is to explain the philosophy of behaviorism and to answer criticisms and misunderstandings about it.

Skinner insists that man will never solve his basic problems of war, environmental pollution, and the like if he continues to look in the "wrong place" for solutions. According to him, the wrong place is "what is felt and introspectively observed," i.e., man's inner state of mind, attitudes, and feelings. In Skinner's opinion, the right place is man's "genetic history, environmental history, and the present setting—all of which lie outside [man himself]." Disagree here and you'll find yourself disagreeing with many other parts of this book.

Skinner has taken many examples of mentalism (introspection) from the current writings of critics and others and translated these into behavioral terms. For example, he cites this quote from the field of education: ". . . attitudes expressed in the structure of school systems affect the cognitive and creative potential of virtually every child, as do the feelings and personalities of teachers and their supervisors." Skinner translates this into: "The intellectual and creative behavior of a child is changed by the school to which he goes, its instructional programs, and the behavior of his teachers and supervisors." Presumably, this translation will make it easier for educators to solve their problems, although Skinner does not explain quite how.

Behaviorism has contributed to psychology and will continue to do so, but Skinner makes such sweeping claims that the burden of proof is on him. He denies the importance of some deeply ingrained ideals. The professor asserts that humans are not free; they are controlled completely by their genetic and environmental history. He translates ethics, compassion, and high moral conduct into particular environmental contingencies and counter controls. Will counter conditioning ever replace moral conflict? Is behaviorism the only way to solve man's complex problems? Skinner says "Yes." Many will need more convincing.

Reviewed by **Christine Kolstad,** *teacher, Damascus (Maryland) High School.*

Children And Television: Lessons from Sesame Street by **Gerald S. Lesser.** Random House. 261 pp. $10.

This book gives us a step-by-step account of the development of the popular and successful TV show from the initial concept through the first broadcast year. Using a rather straightforward approach, Lesser tells the whole story, including the failures as well as the successes.

The basic foundation upon which *Sesame Street* was built includes sound educational planning by trained professionals, time for thoughtful reflection, access to the most modern technological developments and the professionals to manipulate them, freedom to express divergent points of view, and enough money to do the job properly. Lesser cannot repeat often enough that this foundation accounts for *Sesame Street's* success.

Few, if any, classroom teachers will be surprised by the author's discoveries, and few will argue with his formula for success. After all, educators have been saying exactly the same thing for years. Perhaps Lesser's efforts will eventually help open eyes and purse strings.

Reviewed by **Mary E. Ricketts,** *reading teacher, Central School, Haddonfield, New Jersey.*

Will It Grow in a Classroom? edited by **Beatrice** and **Ronald Gross.** Delacorte Press. 316 pp. $8.95.

Teachers, caught in the bureaucratic web of schooling, are finding themselves polarized by two reform movements: accountability in terms of narrowly defined objectives versus freeing the child to learn without

(Continued on page 104)

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adult intervention. Is it possible that in the middle ground of reality there still exists fertile soil which can be productive in terms of a more personalized, humanistic teaching-learning process?

A wide range of viewpoints are blended in *Will It Grow in the Classroom?* Written "by teachers, for teachers, about teaching," it contains vignettes of techniques and experiences, undergirded by a commitment to the interests of students, that bring into focus the multidimensional nature of good teaching.

The landscape of the informal classroom appears attractive and conducive to growth. The stimulus for such growth lies at the grass roots, with teachers' assuming the responsibility for helping each other make adjustments to individual needs. Our practices must reflect the philosophy that "children should like what they do, not do what they like."

Reviewed by **Leslie Handley,** *elementary teacher, North Glendale School, Glendale, Missouri.*

Blood of My Blood: The Dilemma of the Italian Americans by **Richard Gambino.** Doubleday. 250 pp. $7.95.

Gambino presents a well-written, fascinating account of the background of immigrants from southern Italy. The book title, a Sicilian expression, illustrates the importance of family ties. The author points out that historically a strong sense of family was essential for survival in southern Italy. Victims of climate, disease, and exploitation, the unskilled, illiterate, and impoverished people who lived there before emigrating had only their work and their clannishness to sustain them.

Accustomed to earning a living by the sweat of their brow, they looked upon schooling as a "foolishness" that might weaken the family ties which had enabled survival over centuries of hardship. Second-generation Italian Americans, according to the author, did not achieve by American standards and were subject to ridicule, suspicion, and prejudice as they tried to cope with divergent demands of two cultures. Their experiences led them to realize the importance of education and partial Americanization, so they sent their children to schools to become doctors, lawyers, teachers, industrialists, and even politicians. Later generations, Gambino writes, are faced with the choice of becoming completely Americanized by abandoning their heritage or preferably of revitalizing the best of their traditions to enrich the evolving American culture. *Blood of My Blood* is a thoughtful book that offers insight into the makeup of Italian Americans.

Reviewed by **Julian Kane,** *teacher, Garden City Senior High School; senior lecturer, Hofstra University, Long Island, New York.*

Focusing on Global Poverty and Development: A Resource Book for Educators by **Jayne C. Millar.** Overseas Development Council (1717 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036). 630 pp. $12.

The idea that "teachers are also policymakers" propelled the Overseas Development Council (ODC) into a service program for American schools. Through this handbook and workshops, Jayne Millar and others at ODC hope to further "a more global approach" in school curriculums.

They are not alone in their aim. But their handbook is unique. And it is enormous!

There is material to support almost every level of interest. The theme is "development" and how to fit it into existing courses. Included are the topics of economic development, the environment, global hunger and poverty, population, unemployment, and urbanization. Millar gives specific examples for integrating the development theme in U.S. history and government, sociology, current problems, anthropology, world history, economics, geography, area studies, home economics, biology, and ecology.

Those searching for a rationale for including the development perspective in any school program will find ideas and examples aplenty.

There are background essays and concrete suggestions for teachers in a section which could well be considered a textbook for understanding developmental processes. The book is looseleaf in format so that the pages can be removed and used as transparencies and spirit duplicator masters.

The numbers of instruments, documents, and graphics which can be used in classrooms is astounding, and the truth level is very high. Millar handled the difficult task of selecting a range of materials competently and has provided a valuable new collection of resources.

Reviewed by **James M. Oswald,** *director, Intercultural Social Studies Project, American Universities Field Staff.*

Children Are the Revolution: Day Care in Cuba by **Marvin Leiner.** Viking Press. 213 pp. $10.

Children Are the Revolution is a progress report on the development of comprehensive early childhood education in postrevolutionary Cuba. Most of the material on which it is based was gathered in 1968-69 while the author and his family lived in Havana, where the three Leiner children attended Cuban schools. A visit there by Leiner in 1971 provides some updating of his earlier data and impressions.

Leiner convincingly documents the difficult and often discouraging task which faced Cuban educators who chose to remain in Cuba after the fall of the Batista regime. Overcoming initial suspicion and a continuing lack of professional and material resources, the Cuban people have built a system which delivers services well in excess of those provided in the United States but which cannot meet current demand.

Facilities are available (according to a system which gives preference to agricultural workers) for children ranging in age from 45 days to six

years. In the "círculos infantiles," which dominate the system, children are bathed, fed, exercised, and instructed for a full day.

The achievements are many and fully justify Leiner's admiration. But his account does not restrict itself to the rosy picture of a committed people raising their children in communal bliss. He, like his informants in the Cuban educational establishment, is aware of and concerned by the shortcomings caused by a lack of trained personnel and of equipment.

Although *Children Are the Revolution* contains a great deal of information, I doubt very much that the Cuban experience, as represented in this book, has much to tell America's inner-city educators and parents about day care. The heterogeneous sociocultural backgrounds of America's urban scene preclude acceptance of a general educational plan.

This doubt reflects back on unspoken aspects of Leiner's report. Cuba's day-care program is very highly centralized, with the goals and the program for their implementation written by professionals living in Havana. While it is clear that no one expects the plan to be carried out uniformly and to the letter, such leeway is apparently more a concession to the low level of teacher training than a commitment to local desires.

One can guess that parental desires are of little import in Cuba today. Given the conditions which existed prior to the revolution, there may be enough unity of purpose and progress today to render "community control" superfluous as an issue. Perhaps Leiner's next report will provide information which will permit a judgment.

Until then, the Cuban experience will not be relevant for the U.S.A.

Reviewed by **Michael Cole,** *associate professor of psychology, Rockefeller University, New York, who has studied child development in the Soviet Union and Africa as well as in Latin America.*

(Continued on page 106)

The eyes of Remedios can't see beyond the next scrap of food

Father dead... mother blind

It's a hungry world that Remedios Guanzon has seen during the short five years of his life. His father is dead, his mother is blind. Remedios sometimes can earn a few pennies begging — his older brother has become a proficient scavenger. Remedios and his family find it hard to see beyond today's paralyzing hunger toward a better tomorrow.

BUT — with your help there is hope for a needy child like this. If you join in the rewarding work of Foster Parents Plan, your modest monthly contribution can literally reshape the future for someone like Remedios, for his family and better the community in which he lives.

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ED-4-N004

Teachers' Centres edited by **Robert Thornbury.** Agathon. 169 pp. $6.95.

This book could serve as an important tool for classroom teachers in the United States. In the foreword, Edward Yeomans, director of the Greater Boston Teachers Center, describes teacher centers as devices "which not only can bring schoolteachers, publishers, and university people into an ongoing relationship, but can help blur the heavy lines of demarcation between disciplines."

The book gives an account of the origins and working papers of the British teachers centers. It includes information about background, objectives, new directions, teacher support, day-to-day workings, in-service education, and suggestions for further reading.

Teachers' Centres is an informative, exciting book for American teachers who feel the lag in teacher-initiated in-service education and want to do something about it.

Reviewed by **Betty Jo Gormley,** *third grade teacher, Roosevelt Grade School, Boise, Idaho.*

The Second Newman Report: National Policy and Higher Education by Special Task Force to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. The MIT Press. 227 pp. $12.50. Paperback, $3.45.

Couched in rather stiff and formal prose, this second report provides some disquiet and a lot of thought for the educational establishment. In its first report, the task force, chaired by Frank Newman of Stanford, defined the problems of higher education in the 1970's. In this volume, the group makes some far-reaching recommendations about the federal government's role in their solution.

The problems flow from our era of "egalitarian" higher education in which over 50 percent of our young people enter some institution of postsecondary education. Although higher education no longer guarantees social mobility, it is a prerequisite. Many students, motivated only by the credentialing effect of the diploma, are wasting their time in traditional learning modes.

The task force perceives that a tendency to eliminate private colleges and place authority with statewide coordinating bodies and superboards is standing in the way of innovation, responsiveness, and diversity. Also, court decisions have reduced the discretion of campus-level decision making, and regional and professional accreditation associations and the government have imposed further restrictions on institutions of higher education.

How can national policy cope with this state of affairs? Emphatically not by more regulation, according to the task force. Rather, the emphasis must be on incentives that will start to turn the tide in favor of responsiveness.

Most of the task force's recommendations can be subsumed under the rubric of *competition.* Whenever possible, future aid should flow to students rather than institutions, especially those students interested in work-study programs and internships. Basic federal support should be in the form of "portable fellowships." The G.I. Bill concept should be expanded to community service. And all these modes of student aid should be granted under formulas that take into account the need of private schools for higher tuition.

Institutional aid should be granted by criteria other than the approval of regional or professional accreditation. In this connection, the federal government must subsidize efforts to discover methods beyond standardized testing to evaluate mastery of proficiencies needed for success in various fields.

Rather startingly, the task force recommends that the federal government take an antitrust position against the grip of the organized professions "to remove unjust and artificial barriers to entering careers."

These are, of course, only some of the highlights of the report. This is must reading for anyone interested in or connected with postsecondary education.

Reviewed by **John E. Motzkus,** *director, Student Activities, Anaheim (California) High School.*

The Exceptional Child Grows Up **by Ernest Siegel.** Dutton. 227 pp. $8.95.

During the last 15 years, parents of learning-disabled children have had access to a growing number of books describing and prescribing for the problems facing the minimally brain-dyfunctioned (MBD) child in school. This book is the first I have seen that takes a longer view into the adolescence and young adulthood of this segment of the population.

In earlier literature, the emphasis has largely been on academic problems of the primary school years. Siegel clarifies the problems that face the MBD child in junior high and high school. Adolescence is difficult even for an optimally functioning child who brings to these crisis years the confidence of a smooth and successful childhood. For brain-dysfunctioned children, this period is critical because, in addition to their educational difficulties and the cumulative effect of failure, they have serious social difficulties at a time when peer relationships are of prime importance. Their handicaps in this area are organically based and central to the MBD syndrome. It is not surprising, therefore, that virtually all MBD children emerge from adolescence with at least an overlay of emotional problems.

Siegel offers no facile optimism for the adulthood of these subtly handicapped youngsters. The basic problems remain, although the individual can improve his ability to cope with them. Siegel focuses upon what is important: helping the child to weather these crucial years with sufficient emotional capital to function in an adult world.

Reviewed by **Rae S. Weber,** *home instruction coordinator, Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Maryland.*

Remapping Our World
(Continued from page 44)

Throughout naval history this requirement has fostered the secrets, scientific exploration, and discovery of technical means for doing more with the same or more with less. Nothing was or as yet is more highly classified in naval, air, or astro warfare preparation than the anticipated more-with-less superiority.

Economic values are booked at cash-in-value of exclusively physical assets. The economists have scoffed at doing more with less as being an imbecile's "attempt to lift oneself by one's bootstraps."

However, I began to wonder in 1917 whether we might not be close to doing so much with so little that it might soon become feasible to take care of all humanity at so sustainably advanced a standard as to prove that humanity is indeed designed to be a comprehensive success instead of the as yet assumed opposite wherein the individual had to prove self to be an exception and worthy of survival, i.e., to "*earn* a living." I saw that if this sea- and sky-borne more-with-less trend held, universal adequacy of life support would be obvious, wherefore, war and its weapons, including the lie, would become obsolete. Since universe operates only on truths, humanity would cross a cosmic threshold to a new era in universe.

In 1810, the year of Malthus' final publication, the young U.S. Congress authorized its Treasury Department to make the first economic census of the United States, which found that in 1810 there were one-million families in the United States and one-million human slaves. Sumtotally, the the Treasury evaluated homesteads, slaves, tollways, canals, other public development, and the undeveloped wilderness at $3,000 per each family, a total United States wealth of $3 billion.

Last year our annual national income reached $1 trillion. Assuming that one trillion represents a reasonable annual earning rate of only 5 percent on invested assets, a total 1973 national wealth of $20 trillion is indicated compared to the $3 billion in 1810 dollars. Despite interim assumed spending, our national
(Continued on page 109)

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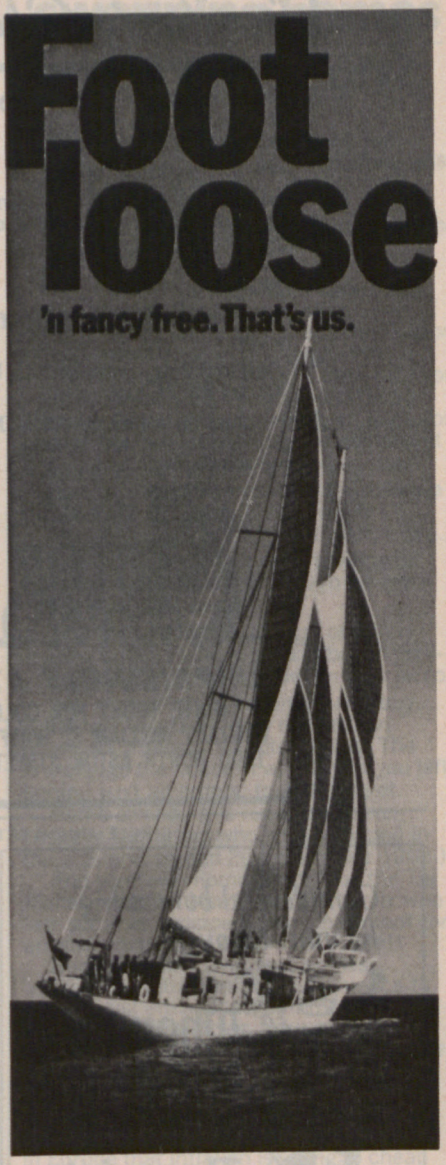

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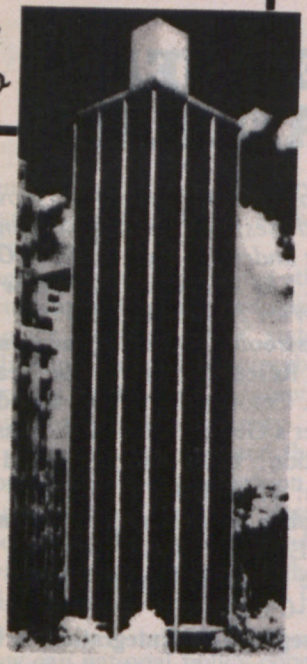

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In response, 51.9 percent strongly opposed or tended to oppose it, and 38.0 percent favored or tended to favor it. When those who favored the extended school year were asked to check the *major* reason for this opinion, the results were:

Buildings can be more fully utilized	29.0%
Many students need more time in school	25.9
Curriculum improvement is possible	19.0
Teachers need higher salaries	12.6
Overcrowding can be alleviated	10.6
Other	2.9

Teachers were also asked to check from a list all the conditions they thought teachers' associations should insist on if a school system initiated an extended school year.

The percentages checking each condition are shown below:

Teachers should be given a choice of teaching in the extended year or in the "regular" school year	80.7%
Parents should be involved in the decision to extend the school year	71.9
Teachers should receive additional pay for any additional work required to change the curriculum	68.7
Teachers' associations should be involved in the decision to extend the school year	61.9
Individual teachers should be involved in the decision to extend the school year	59.8
Students should be involved in the decision to extend the school year	45.7
Teachers should receive a percentage of their regular salary as extra pay	43.2
Teachers should receive perdiem pay for additional days	41.9
Other	3.0

—NEA Research.

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Remapping Our World

(Continued from page 107)

wealth capability has increased six-thousandfold since 1810. Something important has been left out of our accounting system. It is more performance with the same resources.

Suppose that in 1810 the U.S.A. population had established a committee of its most trustworthy, well-informed citizens and had asked them to manage its $3 billion of resources, to take optimum care of its people. In 1810 we had neither electromagnetics, nor railroads. If any of that select committee had suggested that American homes might be lighted and heated the way they are today, the rest of the committee would have said this was utterly impossible. He might have been thrown off the committee as "crazy" if he said, "Let's invent a machine to do away with all slavery." Yet today, the average American home is served by the kw hour equivalent of about 200 slaves.

The foregoing paragraph suggests the concept that purposeful overall cosmic evolution, rather than a purposeful humanity, is powerfully responsible for these utterly unexpected major changes whereby 52 percent of all humanity is now experiencing a higher standard of living in 1974 than that ever experienced by any king or millionaire in 1900, during which three-quarters of a century, their life expectancy has almost doubled. Map three, the sky-ocean world, dramatically illustrates such unplanned evolution at work.

Map three consists of the same triangular pieces as the second map; but they are rearranged with all the land centered instead of with all the water centered. This third map shows a north-south oriented world rather than an east-west one. It was an east-west world for so long because ocean ships could not exchange cargoes at sea, wherefore harbors became of major world commerce importance. There were not many good harbors, and the railroads interlinked the east and west coasts. The harbor cities became the continental points of disembarkation, loadings, and distribution of the goods that began to alter man's relationship to his environment as did, for instance, tin from the

(Continued on page 110)

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Remapping Our World

(Continued from page 109)

Malay Straits brought to America to tin the surface of the thin sheet steel of hermetically sealed cans, which, together with refrigerated transportation, allowed humans to move away from the farmlands to seek livelihoods in manufacturing centers while, concurrently, world commerce integrated metals produced seasonally travelling industrial teams which operated farm machinery that dispensed with the need for most of the local farmers and farmhands, wherefore the majority of Americans who had lived on farms came into the cities.

Man's discovery of chrome nickel steel's high structural strength stability for engines operating at high heat made possible jet aircraft engines of that metal which began replacing propeller-driven engines. In 1961, three jet-engined airplanes, each making the Atlantic crossings in hours vs. the steamship's five days, carried more passengers across the Atlantic in one year than did either the *H.M.S. Queen Mary* or the *S.S. United States*, the then best transatlantic liners. As a consequence, all unexpected by humanity, ships of the sea became obsolete in 1961 as the prime means by which humanity crossed oceans.

On map number three you will find that 90 percent of humanity can reach each other via the shortest great-circle air routes without going near the Atlantic, the Pacific, or the Indian Oceans. On the first two maps, man is inherently disassociated, remote, and self-interestedly preoccupied with the political concept of "It's got to be you or me; there's not enough for both." Then suddenly humanity is becoming integrated.

I go to India a great deal and unlike my father I get there in 24 hours and can get them on the telephone in a few minutes. Since I have now learned that the more with lessing makes feasible the economic success of all humanity, it becomes clear that universe is trying to make humanity successful despite itself. Integration of all humanity's vital interests around planet Earth involves doing away with all of the 150 sovereign states, wherefore world revolution is at hand. If it is bloody, all lose. If it is mind-conducted as a design science revolution, all humanity will win. □

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 17

AFTER ALL

Pollyanna, Eleanor Porter's novel published in 1913, introduced a heroine who became so well-known that she found her way into the dictionary as "one characterized by irrepressible optimism and a tendency to find good in everything." People must have welcomed Pollyanna-type optimism six decades ago, for they read the book avidly. In less than two years, 23 editions had been printed.

Today optimism has slumped into disrepute and being called a Pollyanna may be regarded as worse than being labeled a (expletive deleted). Pollyanna is considered such a bad word, in fact, that when I asked our *Journal* researcher to get the book from the public library, she flinched at the possibility of being seen carrying it. Probably she wrapped it in a newspaper lest she run the risk of losing her credentials as a sophisticated card-carrying pessimist.

Who isn't a pessimist, with the schools, the country, and the world in such a mess? Isn't it unrealistic to think good things are happening anywhere? Isn't it naive to believe that conditions can improve?

And, yet, as Dr. Menninger commented in last month's *Today's Education,* hope is a bulwark of effective mental health. Hope, he added, though long considered by many to be an evil instead of a remedy, was put by St. Paul alongside love and faith as a saving grace in the maintenance of life.

Wondering if hope is an enlightened extension of Pollyanna's undiscriminating optimism, I gave myself an injection of the "glad philosophy" by reading Mrs. Porter's novel. Pollyanna's sunny expertise came through in an early episode. Disappointed at not having ice cream for dinner, she soon consoled herself by reflecting that the ice cream she didn't eat couldn't make her stomach ache. And so on for the rest of the book.

How about playing Pollyanna's glad game with the manuscripts and other communications on my desk today?

Rather than bemoaning the cost of bacterial cultures, a science teacher and his biology classes in Alhambra High School, Phoenix, are saving money for the school district by operating what the Associated Press calls a strange supermarket. The central office buys one culture for each bacteria, and the Alhambra students grow the cultures for the other 10 high schools in the district.

A culture problem of another kind might have brought despair to the director of human relations for Elkhart, Indiana, community schools. But rather than lamenting the lack of appreciation students of various racial and religious groups felt for each other, she proposed the launching of a project called MOSAIC.

For five weeks, Black, Chicano, Jewish, Amish, and Chinese representatives spend two hours with four sixth grade classes, sharing their varied cultures through song, dance, artifacts, slides, and answering questions. So successful has MOSAIC been that it is spreading from the pilot school to others in the city.

A Maryland elementary school beset by pupil behavior problems, hostile parents, and 60 percent teacher turnover launched a push-the-positive program, which began with "neighborhood coffees." Constructive results grew out of such approaches as cross-age tutoring, outstanding-behavior certificates, good-deeds notebooks, and principal-for-a-minute honors.

A Torrance, California, art teacher didn't complain that too many teenagers were antagonistic when forced to take an abbreviated six weeks' exposure to world art, mandated for all sophomores in his high school. He determined to use ingenuity and large doses of humor to make an enjoyable learning experience out of this required course. The academically talented achieved well when he involved them in such projects as a class microcosm of a city planning commission and practice in learning to use the eyes by studying Greek ideas of movement. It was the great "forgotten" middle group of students, though, who made most progress in both subject matter and attitude.

Undiscouraged by their difficulty in talking with a deaf classmate, boys and girls in a Virginia elementary school class decided that sole responsibility for communicating did not rest with the handicapped child herself. Their solution? They learned the sign language.

After glancing through only five pieces of mail, it seemed to me that I had discovered evidences of hope, of constructive activities developed to meet unfortunate circumstances. But I was glad to see that Pollyanna's rationalization for accepting a bad situation did not emerge at all.

The sixth communication on my desk suggests that each of us bears a responsibility for improving conditions (in our case, conditions within the schools): The president of Firestone tells about Judge Dunn, who was presiding in court while a stupid witness was being interrogated.

The attorney asked, "Were you at the corner of Fourth and Elm the day of the accident?"

The witness replied, "Who? Me?"

"Yes, you. Did you notice whether the ambulance came to care for the wounded woman?"

"Who? Me?"

"Yes, you. Did you notice whether the woman was seriously injured?"

"Who? Me?"

"Certainly you. Why do you think you're here?"

Looking at the judge, the witness answered, "I came here to see justice done."

Said the judge, "Who? Me?"

Each of us as we face the issues of the day can make a difference. We don't need to be as saccharine as Pollyanna and maybe we can't summon the sublime courage of St. Paul, but we *can* have hope and—more important—can give hope to others.

"Who? Me." Yes, you—and me too. All of us.

—Mildred Sandison Fenner, *editor,* Today's Education.

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The following materials are available free (or at low cost) from various companies. To order, circle the number on the postage-paid QUICK-ACTION-REPLY card inside the back cover that corresponds with the materials.

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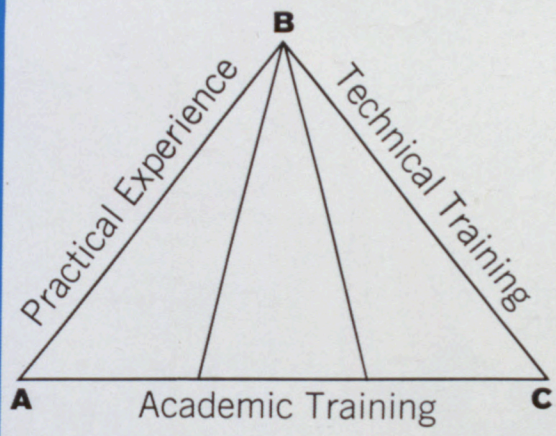

Given:

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To prove:

The Air Force provides high school graduates with the background needed for success.

Statements

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2. The Air Force is synonymous with educational opportunity.
3. The Air Force encourages its enlisted personnel to earn college degrees.
4. Air Force pay is competitive, the benefits outstanding.
5. Air Force men and women's chances for in-service and post-service success are limited only by their initiative.

Reasons

1. Given: Most of the over 250 Air Force jobs require formal training at the seven major Air Force vocational schools, schools which are accredited by either the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools or the North Central Accrediting Association.
2. Given: All airmen are encouraged to take off-duty courses at any of the 700 colleges and universities located on or near Air Force bases, with the Air Force paying up to 75% of their tuition expenses.
3. Through the new Community College of the Air Force (CCAF), airmen are given the opportunity to earn the equivalent of an Associate in Technology Degree by combining their formal training with job-relevant off-duty education in any one of over 80 CCAF curriculum majors.
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5. The combination of practical know-how and both academic and technical training provides the basis for rapid advancement in the Air Force, and the basis for life-long accomplishment in civilian life.

Granted, life is not as simple as a geometric proof. However, we believe that the total career education program that the Air Force offers can give many high school graduates superior chances for long-term success in today's technically-oriented society. Those who remain in the Air Force will have been trained for advancement and responsibility. Those who depart for civilian life will have a background conducive to achieving an economically secure future.

If you are not already familiar with the dimensions of the Air Force educational programs, we would like to make this information available to you. We think you'll be pleasantly surprised and impressed by both the variety and scope of what we have to offer. Simply write: Air Force Educational Affairs, Box A, Randolph AFB, TX 78148. Or request the material from your local Air Force Recruiter.

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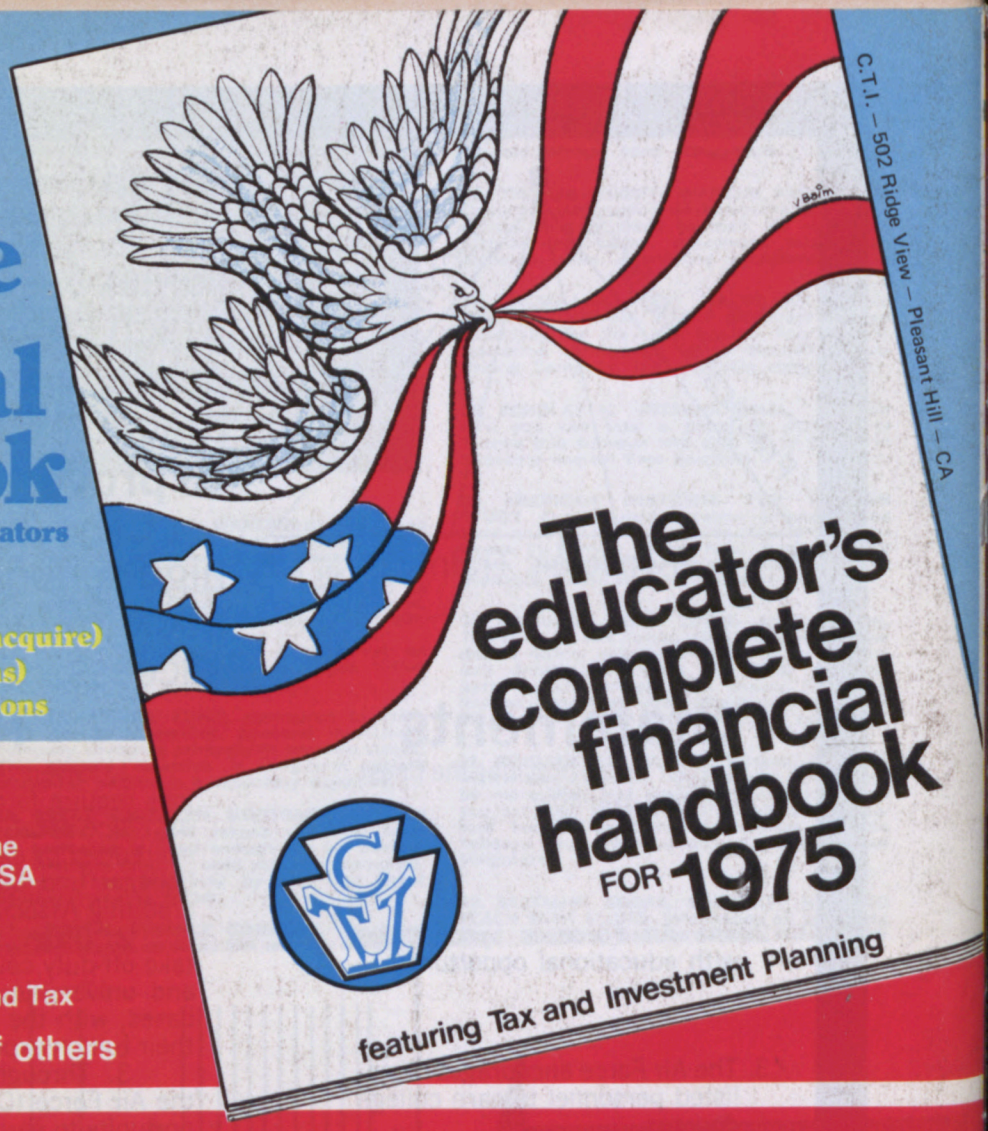
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